DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 360 209 SO 022 874

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TITLE	Educational Planning in Small-Area Countries: The Case of the Caribbean (Study Made on Behalf of Unesco).
SPONS AGENCY	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Paris (France).
REPORT NO	ED-90/WS/9
PUB DATE	Jul 89
NOTE	99p.
AVAILABLE FROM	United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, Place de Fontenoy, Paris 75700 France.
PUB TYPE	Reports - Research/Technical (143)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Comparative Analysis; *Developing Nations; *Educational Planning; Educational Research; Elementary Secondary Education; Foreign Countries; Higher Education
IDENTIFIERS	*Caribbean; *Small Countries

ABSTRACT

This paper describes a study whose twofold purpose was to: (1) use the monograph approach to improve knowledge about the situation of education in small countries, particularly in the Caribbean; and (2) distill ideas and techniques to make a technical contribution to educational planning in small countries. Part 1 presents a preliminary reminder of the theoretical and methodological bases of the socio-economic analysis of small countries to explain underlying problems. Part 2 is an in-depth, comparative investigation of small countries' educational problems. The study focuses on two subgroups of islands: those of the eastern Caribbean and of the French West Indies. Part 3 presents alternatives and options open to educational planners, bearing in mind the constraints imposed by the countries' small size. The report accents long range forward analysis. A bibliography lists 9 books, 15 articles and chapters, and 8 reports and research works. Statistical annexes comprise half the document. (SG)

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EDUCATIONAL PLANNING IN SMALL-AREA COUNTRIES

THE CASE OF THE CARIBBEAN

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David ATCHOARENA
July 1989

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INTRODUCTION

For some years now, thinking on the specific problems of small countries in regard to development has included the field of education. This study on 'Educational planning in small-area countries' comes under that heading.

The object of the study is twofold:

first to use the monograph approach as a means of improving what is known about the concrete situation of education in certain small countries - in this case in the Caribbean; and

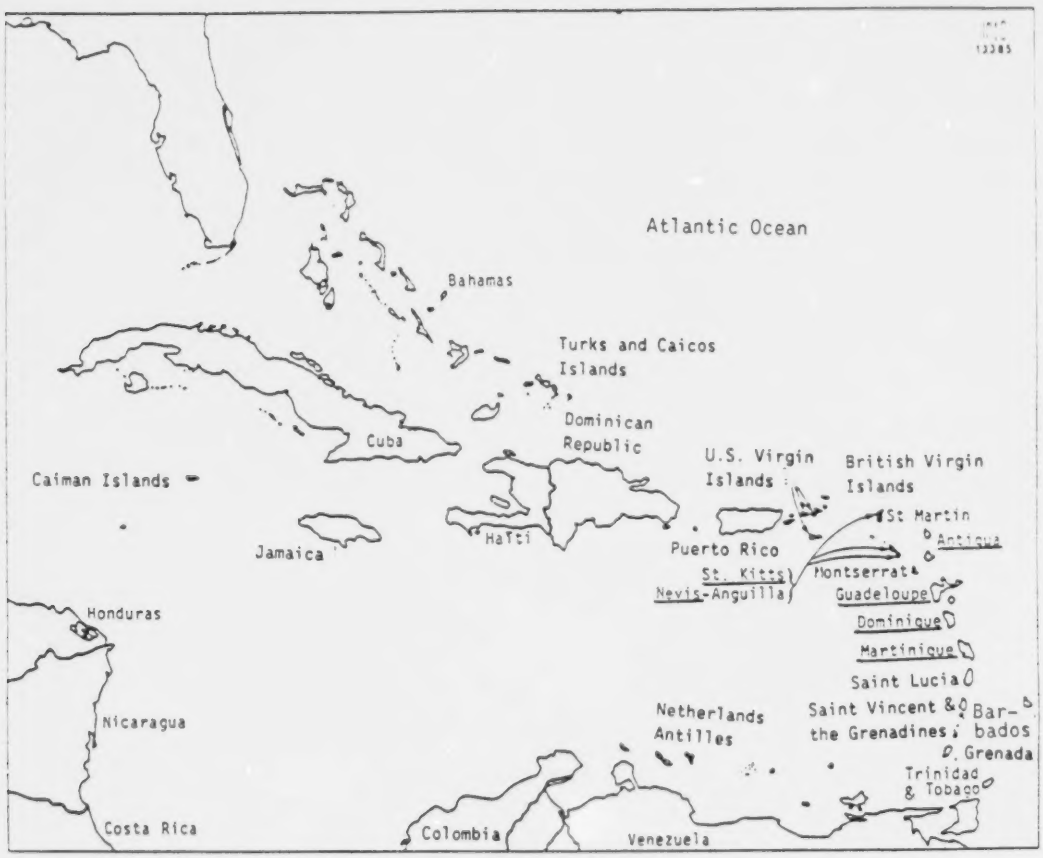
secondly to distil methodological ideas and techniques from that analysis which could make a technical contribution to educational planning practice in small countries irrespective of their geographical location.

The method chosen for the structure of the study uses three interlinked stages beginning, in part I, with a preliminary reminder of the theoretical and methodological basis of the socio-economic analysis of small countries to explain the general theory underlying the specific problems with which the study is concerned. This brief, epistemelogical parenthesis also enables the study to be linked up with recent research dealing with the question of size in education.

An in-depth and comparative investigation of educational problems in small countries is certainly the principal avenue for finding appropriate solutions. To that extent the educational fabric of the Caribbean islands offers a particularly rich field for research. In order to show how small size and insularity, regardless of the institutional and administrative systems in force, generate similar problems to which similar answers can be proposed, the study relates more particularly to two subgroups of islands: (a) those of the eastern Caribbean, and (b) the French West Indies. This is part II.

Part III goes on from these individual cases to consider the alternatives and options open to educational planners bearing in mind the constraints imposed by smallness of size. It would be absurd, however, to expect exhaustive findings covering all possible fields of educational planning, instead the accent is placed on one key dimension - but which is sensitive, too, being unceasingly questioned - namely long-range forward analysis.

(map)



Caribbean arc

I. GENERAL BACKGROUND

1.1 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROBLEMS OF SMALL COUNTRIES

In economic literature small countries form a separate category, the reason being that smallness is associated with a number of phenomena affecting both the operation and the structure of the economy. It is reasonable to suppose, therefore, that education too is influenced by the size of a country.

1.1.1 Argument for a structural and dynamic conception of a country's size

But what is meant exactly by 'small' when applied to the size of a country? There is no intention here to resurrect what is already an old argument that ultimately got no farther than emphasizing the relative nature of the notion of smallness. At bottom, it depends on the criteria used and the area of reference.

As for yardsticks, we have first to clarify the conception underlying this study whose title seems to take the country's area - a solely spatial dimension - as the only criterion. In spite of this apparent choice, taken for purposes of convenience, we have to bear in mind the necessarily multidimensional and dynamic nature of the notion of size. Ideally countries should be ranked on the basis of the level of development of their economy and the strength of the country. The economic approach consists of assessing the value of the gross domestic product and the density of intersectoral relations. But a small country is above all a weak country, making it necessary, also, to refer to criteria for weakness and vulnerability.

This semantic parenthesis is a necessary preliminary to the study of small countries' socio-economic development problems.

1.1.2 Constraints associated with smallness

Natural resources

To begin with, smallness of area invariably limits the volume and diversity of the natural resources with which a country is endowed. In agriculture, for example, limited land-space means not only a smaller area to work but also less variety in soil and climate.

Markets

For a given per capita income, a small population means a small internal market. This factor prompts a high propensity to export in order to compensate for the small market but it also conditions production methods.

Production conditions

A low level of production puts limits on economies of growth whilst economies of scale are out of the question. What is more, when technological progress exposes rigidity and calls for a big change in scale, the smallness of the market tends to put innovation out of the reach of small economies. Their competitive position is therefore undermined. In addition, the inadequate level of savings is a financial obstacle to the introduction of new technologies which are often synonymous with price increases.

Consequences for the profile of the economy

All the natural, commercial, technical and financial constraints to which small economies are subject are reflected in a number of tendential effects produced either as a result of a kind of determinism or else by choice of economic policy. The three principal, interconnected, effects are of three kinds:

the lack of diversity in production and export structures;

the high degree to which the economy is open to foreign penetration;

the considerable relative importance of the tertiary sector.

Of itself, the small size of an economy is not necessarily a handicap. Some authors have even pointed to its advantages in relation to social cohesion and adaptability to change.

First among the destabilizing factors for a small country are international competition and the homogenization of consumption patterns at world level. Confrontation with powerful economic units on foreign and domestic markets results in a domination effect to the detriment of the weakest partners. The spread of foreign values and habits of consumption increases dependency and intensifies imbalances in the weak countries, particularly in the labour market. Although the considerable weight of international assistance has helped the smallest countries to escape the perverse debt-adjustment cycle, it is only at the price of a dependency that is perhaps even more restrictive because there is no apparent advantage in exchange.

1.1.3 Small area and insularity

Most countries with a very small area are islands, so we must clearly look into the socio-economic implications of insularity. For the social sciences, islands are not a separate category, just one particular spatial configuration. Even so, the combination of ecological, historical, demographic and geopolitical factors tends to reveal a fairly specific form of relevance.

For one thing, the vulnerability of insular formations and their ecosystem creates considerable uncertainty about their capacity to maintain steady growth: at varyingly regular intervals, tectonic, climatic and ecological accidents imperil the gains from past development and the rhythm of progress. External aid is the only way of mitigating the regression due to this chronic environmental instability.

Emigration, another constant of island conditions, is an essential factor in the maintenance of the socio-economic equilibria. Emigration rates are particularly high in most islands. The reasons for this propensity to emigrate are both historic - e.g. the preservation of preferential links with the old mother-land - and economic, leaving home often being an individual strategy prompted by a situation of endemic unemployment and underemployment. The scale of the problem for one thing facilitates cultural interpenetration and for another tends to regulate economic tensions by absorbing surplus manpower. In addition, remittances from migrants constitute a far from negligible source of finance for island populations.

Lastly, islands are often located in strategic positions the result of which, in one way, is to increase both their dependency and the amount of foreign aid they receive. Vulnerability, emigration and assistance are certainly the three variables that enable the problems of islands to be best understood.

1.1.4 Endogenous development: its meaning for small countries

Appraisal of the constraints bearing on the development of small countries and recognition of the externally based nature of their growth make it essential to treat the notion of endogenous development, in their case, with the greatest care. But first of all we have to look into the real meaning of the term. If it is used to mean internally based growth or the capacity to generate the major part of the driving forces for economic, technological, social and cultural change within the country, then the term cannot be used for the small developing countries. Conversely, if endogenous development denotes the process by which change, though imported from outside, is internalized and reinterpreted, both in conscience and in action, then the concept can inspire development policy and find its place in the operational sphere. This view has at least two dimensions, one social and the other cultural.

In most small countries, particularly those that may be called micro-sized, the per capita aid figure is such that poverty is not the most immediate danger to society. In many cases, a far greater risk is that of dualization. This risk stems from the differential participation of the various social groups in the development process and is the product of contrary mechanisms: integration and exclusion. A wide range of criteria govern this segmentation, including social origin, age, sex and educational level. At the same time the collapse of traditional agents of regulation, such as family relations, helps to erode the logic of solidarity and, on the contrary, to encourage disintegrative trends.

At the cultural level the increasingly sharp and intensive clash between local values and imported patterns of consumption and ways of life causes a gradual dislocation of identity. In these conditions economic development is synonymous with assimilation and promotes the gradual disappearance of the society and of cultural identity defined as the distinctive personality of a people. In the face of these threats to small and therefore more fragile and exposed societies, education is a strategic concern.

Education makes it easier to understand the changes accompanying development and encourages the emergence of a collective awareness of what is at stake, all of which strengthens social cohesion and solidarity.

What is more, by bringing levels of awareness and knowledge closer together, the growth of education helps to narrow socio-cultural differences in a country, particularly if it takes local values into consideration. Universal participation in development and controlled integration of dominant cultural inputs are certainly two essential dimensions of the concept of endogenous development as applied to small countries.

1.2 THE EFFECT OF SMALLNESS ON EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT: HANDICAPS AND ISSUES

It is easy to see that the size of the educational system depends on that of the economy. Taking the functional viewpoint, education's primary task is to provide industry with the manpower it needs. But tailoring educational resources to requirements is never an easy problem and errors are costly. Ultimately, the structuring of the educational system is the result of an equation with manpower requirements on one side and available financial resources on the other.

1.2.1 Determination and satisfaction of manpower requirements

The problems of matching up the educational system with the production sector is universal and not peculiar to small countries. Even so, they are posed in slightly different terms in a small economy. The scale of the economic fabric is small in two ways: quantitatively and qualitatively.

For equal productivity, the volume of employment necessary is directly dependent on the level of production and therefore on the number and size of the enterprises involved. There is also a link between the size of a country and the diversification of its production processes. From the manpower standpoint, therefore, smallness of geographical area means not only a smaller total requirement but also narrower differentiation in the skills needed. The latter is itself due to two separate factors, one structural and the other organizational.

All other things being equal, particularly as regards comparable development, the structure of an economy is related to its size. This means that many activities, including industrial activities, are not to be found in small countries. The concentration of production on a small range of products is reflected, as far as jobs are concerned, by a narrow range of occupations.

As regards work organization, a production base dominated by small-sized units (typical of small countries) sets limits to the process of division of labour and specialization that normally accompanies the modernization of production facilities. In this way, the small scale of production structures may sometimes hold back the introduction of technological progress and in particular lead to lower productivity and therefore poor competitiveness. The implications of these organizational constraints as regards employment are that jobs, and therefore the qualifications required for them, are more general and less specialized.

This feature limits the extent to which conclusions at the international level on trends in occupations can be applied to small economies. It also calls into question the use of standard nomenclatures in studying jobs and forecasting job trends: designed for big economic aggregates, these classifications lead to a wrong perception of employment qualifications and organization by making no allowance for the existence of elasticities of substitution. These comments apply more particularly to the industrial production sector: commercial, one-man business and agricultural activities fit in better, to some extent, in small countries. What is more, the sociology of small countries and experience, too, show that, because of the interpenetration of roles and their concentration on a small number of individuals, smallness favours recruitment practices that do not comply with the traditional rules of the labour market. In small countries the importance of qualification as a yardstick for recruitment (and wage level) takes second place to other factors.

The problem of forecasting manpower requirements, keystone of any educational planning exercise, arises in terms that are at least as acute for small as for big countries. In Europe this aspect surfaced during the period

of vigorous growth before the first oil shock. Later, the tenacity of the economic crisis and its depressant effect on employment brought the problem of the education-employment balance back into the headlines and today it is a cause for serious concern in most industrial countries.

In the developing countries, the 'ideology' of growth and the provision of planning services has led to the use of models for the construction of the education system based on projected trends in manpower requirements. This 'manpower requirement' method, however, has failed to fully satisfy planners' and populations' expectations because of its technical and theoretical inadequacies. Inter alia, its disregard of the informal sector is equivalent to the total exclusion of a vital component of the socio-economic organization of these countries.

In an underdeveloped economy, smallness also generates other difficulties in employment forecasting. The basically heteronomous nature of growth causes requirements to be over-assessed. In other words, trends in the volume of employment and in qualifications are primarily the result of external decisions and phenomena, in particular the flows of private capital and above all fluctuations in the amount of aid. The instability and not easily foreseeable nature of these variables make employment and educational planning methods very uncertain.

1.2.2 Financing the system

Here the small countries too are subject to the usual budgetary constraints and have to cope with the steep rise in requirements in a period of relative austerity. However, for them the problem of balancing the budget arises in its own specific context because tax productivity is limited by the small number of nationals and the relative lowness of their income. Very often most fiscal revenue comes from taxes on imports. In these conditions foreign aid is an essential source of finance for implementing development policy and this applies to every sector. For example, it is by no means rare for grants to cover all capital expenditure and even part of a country's current expenditure. Education is no exception to the rule and is therefore in a highly dependent situation. There is therefore a sharp contradiction between the policy of emancipation and cultural 'recentring' on the one hand and the exogenous nature of educational finance on the other.

On top of this come the extra costs associated with smallness: the printing of school-books, for example, where economies of scale call the tune. Here too there is an incompatibility between a qualitative objective (to produce curricula and manuals) and an economic objective (to produce them at lowest cost). Another effect of smallness is that, with the small enrolment figures, utilization of facilities is not always at its optimum. The technical sections, whose frequently very high cost does not depend on enrolment numbers, are a case in point. This example stems from a broader problem, that of the indivisibility of certain items of expenditure not only in the case of equipment but also in the field of educational administration.

Island states have to cope with other difficulties as well, such as the risk of cyclones and, in the case of archipelagos, the problem of organizing the educational system to cover the whole of the territory so as to uphold the right of access to education for all. On the whole, small developing countries' own capacity for financing education is not, in relative terms, increasing. More often than not the share of GDP going to education is already at its ceiling (up to over 13 per cent in Kiribati and Vanuatu).

In such a situation, the temptation to the government to have others bear the cost of education is strong. But, there again, the small scale of the economy does not make finding alternatives easy. Save for some exceptions, the weakness of the economic fabric does not permit any significant contribution from industry. At household level, to generalize the private financing of education at primary and secondary level would go against the equal access to education objective. Furthermore, the state of the labour market cannot, on the basis of per capita return on educational investment, justify the development of education in the commercial and industrial sector, except for the tertiary level.

In practice budgetary constraints often dictate large-scale selection at the end of primary school and the combination of financial and structural factors (the low degree of differentiation in the demand for employment) results in an underdeveloped system of education. This lack of growth applies both to levels and to fields of education. The provision of diversified educational careers to meet the diversity of the school population's requirements and improve the efficiency of the system is out of small countries' reach.

Lastly, to meet needs at higher education level or in highly specialized fields, recourse has to be had to universities or training centres in other countries. This constraint is responsible for much emigration. Even so, it has to be said that most small countries have arrived at an enrolment situation that is the envy of many developing countries with enrolment rates that are often over 100 per cent in first-level schools. The explanation lies in the small number and high density of the population, two factors which facilitate the development of the school network.

1.3 THE ANSWERS: THE STRATEGIES BEING DEVELOPED

1.3.1 The regional solution

The first reaction of small countries is to form into groups and to try to tackle various kinds of problem together. This strategy depends, of course, on a number of conditions being met. In particular the countries have to be close enough to each other, firstly in geographical terms but also in language, culture and policy. The geographical closeness condition puts the regional approach out of the reach of many small countries, some islands and others in continental enclaves. For them the alternatives are to rely on their own resources, to seek South-South co-operation on a broad basis or to integrate to a greater or lesser extent in a major economic and political aggregate.

Basically, the spatial dimension limits regional solutions (defined as methods of co-operation among small countries) to three big island regions: the South Pacific, the Caribbean and the Indian Ocean. But the feasibility of regional projects also depends on the degree of closeness at cultural and linguistic levels and the political will of the States concerned. The South Pacific Commission, the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and the Indian Ocean Commission are the three principal instruments for the promotion of inter-island co-operation. Of the three the Caribbean, though highly diverse, is certainly the most compact and homogeneous area. The countries in CARICOM constitute a linguistic and ethnic community, are relatively close geographically and have a common history. In the Indian Ocean and even more so in the South Pacific, geographical dispersion and fragmentation of the regional space coupled with the wide variety of language, culture and historical experience make it less easy for structured relations to be developed among the islands.

1.3.2 Regional education structures

The first physical expression of inter-island co-operation in education was the building of regional universities. The Caribbean was the first area to see the construction of this kind of institution with the creation of the University of the West Indies in 1962 embracing eight countries and consisting of three campuses on Trinidad and Tobago, Barbados and Jamaica. The University of the South Pacific, covering 11 countries and with two campuses, in Fiji and Western Samoa, was set up in 1968. The islands of the Indian Ocean - fewer in number amd wider in variety - have no regional university, which is also a sign of the relatively slower progress of inter-island co-operation in this area. The Commission of the Indian Ocean, for example, was not established until 1982 whereas the Caribbean Free Trade Association (CARIFTA, predecessor of CARICOM) was set up in 1968 and the Commission of the South Pacific dates back to 1947.

It would be difficult to dispute the role played by the regional universities in training several generations of senior personnel and in promoting links and solidarity among the islands. This recognition of the contribution made by the universities to regional development cannot however be allowed to obscure the difficulties and limitations encountered.

These are bound up with the inevitable differences in the extent to which the countries concerned benefit. Clearly those where there is a campus are advantaged as compared with the others. The splitting up of the facilities over several islands helps to mitigate this imbalance but it fails to eliminate the disparities of access to higher education. The persistence of

the phenomenon maintains the flows of intraregional emigration which, though theoretically temporary, is sometimes permanent. Conversely, the presence of a shared university does act as a brake on extra-regional emigration. However this may be, the drain to metropolitan universities continues, (a) for lack of capacity (too few places and too few disciplines taught) and (b) because of the continuing attraction of other centres.

A frequent criticism is the dependence of education on metropolitan standards and curricula. This partly justified charge has often been levelled at the University of the West Indies. But the main problem that the regional universities have to face today is less educational than political and it has to do with the political desire of certain countries to nationalize the regional university structures located on their territory. This process of fragmentation is happening both in the Pacific and in the Caribbean. Sometimes the pretext is the question of funding the university, but underlying these centrifugal tensions there is a deeper uneasiness about the effectiveness of regional infrastructures in an economic and cultural environment in which the rules lean increasingly towards greater integration in the international system.

This context, plus the need to do more to satisfy certain needs in the way of qualifications at the national level is leading to the development of post-secondary training structures in each country. These types of institute (multipurpose post-secondary college) prepare their students for higher diplomas after courses lasting two or three years and may even grant exemption from the first level of university education. Far from being in competition with or an alternative to the university, this type of initiative is closely linked with the regional universities in order to provide different educational careers. In addition, the interlinking of these centres within the one region increases the range of complementarities, thus filling out the educational map at both regional and national level.

Inter-island co-operation also applies to teacher training. All these facilities are reinforced by the use of distance teaching methods which help towards greater equality of access to higher education to the benefit of islands without any university campus and the populations of archipelago States.

1.3.3 Common validation systems

The creation of regional diplomas has been a second stage in the process of educational emancipation and in its structuring within networks of co-operation. Up to now small countries have always been under the yoke of the metropolitan validation institutions, e.g. in English-language areas the 'University of Cambridge Examinations Syndicate' or the 'University of London' for general education and the 'City and Guilds of London Institute' or 'London Chamber of Commerce and Industry' for technical education. Efforts to gain independence have led to the creation of various alternative systems:

the 'Caribbean Examination Council';

the 'South Pacific Board of Educational Assessment'; and

the 'Mauritius Examination Syndicate'.

In spite of these innovations, because of the concern not to lose the international recognition of certificates that give entrance to university,

the metropolitan diplomas have been maintained as well. This creates a dual system - a relevant illustration of the difficulty of achieving complete freedom from external dependence in education as well as everything else. Even so, persevering in this renovation of the educational system is essential for the future of education in small countries and will determine how far they can go in the cultural 'recentring' of education.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE CASE OF THE CARIBBEAN

2.1 THE STATES OF THE EASTERN CARIBBEAN

2.1.1 The socio-economic context

The subregion generally known as the Eastern Caribbean consists of seven countries: Antigua and Barbuda, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, Saint Christopher and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. The first common feature of these islands is their small area, the biggest (Dominica) covering no more than 751 and the smallest (Montserrat) only 102 square kilometres. Others are the very fact that they are islands and their small population, economic weakness and extreme dependence on other countries.

Geographically, demographically and economically close, the islands of the Eastern Caribbean are also similar in their history. In terms of human resources their pattern of evolution has centred on migratory phenomena and one of the dimensions of their vulnerability has been this demographic dependence on other countries inherited from the colonial slavery based system.

In the countries of the Eastern Caribbean there seems to be a relative contrast in population size and development as between the islands in the north where populations are very small and ceasing to grow and those in the south where the populations are larger and still showing significant growth.

These differences also surface in the considerable variation in unemployment rates. Seasonally, some countries (Antigua and Barbuda and Saint Christopher and Nevis) are subject to sectoral labour shortages (in building, tourism and agriculture) but, by and large, the shortage of jobs is a major problem.

The persistence of surplus manpower is reflected in the kind of social, economic and demographic behaviour associated with survival strategies. At the social level, the structure of society encourages the development of systems of solidarity so there is no absolute relation between an individual's economic activity and his level of consumption. This informal redistribution mechanism operated by the social and family structure is an important factor in maintaining social equilibria.

At the economic level, as in most developing countries, the manpower surplus results in a part of the labour force relying on small informal jobs, mainly micro-retail trading and subsistence agriculture. The role of this sector is vital because it accounts for the production of a significant share of the basic foodstuffs.

Lastly, internal, inter-island and international migration is the principal channel for the placement of the excess labour force.

Indeed the scale and fluctuating nature of emigration does not make population forecasting easy. However, the mere growing up of the younger age-groups implies an inevitable though varying increase in the population of working age. This demographic change will be less of a constraint in Saint Christopher and Nevis and particularly Montserrat given the small numbers involved, but the five other countries will all see an appreciable increase in the available workforce, at least up to the end of this century. The type of demographic/economic regulation that will arise out of that situation is not yet clear but the inference is a likely growth in non-institutional survival and employment strategies.

2.1.2 The structure of the education system

Little diversification

Pronounced segmentation

The school system has three interconnected levels corresponding to primary, secondary and post-secondary education. In general, pre-primary is still relatively undeveloped and mainly consists of private initiatives, but it is growing fast and tending to integrate, to some extent, with the national education system.

School is compulsory in all countries for a period ranging from 9 to 11 years and therefore including part of the secondary cycle. The age of admission is 5 in all countries. Theoretically, a school career breaks down as follows:

primary: 5-11 (10 in Antigua and Barbuda);

secondary: 11-15 or 18 depending on the country;

and then post-secondary.

Inherited from colonial times, the structure of the school system is patterned on the British model. In general, primary school has three levels:

primary infant: 5-7;

primary junior: 8-11;

primary senior: 12-14.

Primary schools may have one or more of these cycles. Primary education, in the strict sense, only embraces the infant and junior levels. After the normal primary period the 'common entrance examination' gives access to secondary. There are not sufficient places in secondary schools so a significant proportion of the children - those failing the examination - go on to the senior level of primary school where they stay up to the end of compulsory schooling. Really it is therefore a kind of dead end.

In secondary education there are three, relatively watertight, possibilities: long cycle, short cycle and vocational education.

The long cycle is based on the United Kingdom grammar school in which pupils take the 'General Certificate of Education, Ordinary Level' examination after five years. A further two years' study is required to take the 'Advanced Level' examination which gives access to university.

The short cycle provides only three years schooling at the end of which pupils take the common middle school examination. For most of them this is the end of their education, being no longer of compulsory school age. For a few successful ones, however, there is a narrow passage back to the long cycle.

Vocational education is a relatively recent innovation. It is dispensed in 'comprehensive' schools and may also lead on to 'ordinary levels'.

The introduction of junior secondary schools and comprehensive schools has been encouraged by external aid organizations, particularly the World Bank. The idea was to fit the educational system better to the needs of the economy and to the financial resources available. Even so, social demand continues to prefer the long cycle which is perceived as giving a better chance of social and vocational promotion.

Which children go to which of the three types of secondary education depends on the results of the examination at the end of primary school and on places available. Whether or not a child goes into vocational education is therefore governed more by constraint than by choice.

Overall, post-secondary education is underdeveloped and the total number enrolled is small. It generally covers teacher training and agricultural, technical and health disciplines (training of nurses). The higher technical education structures give technician level training in the basic technological and service sectors: electricity, engineering, construction, hotel-keeping and catering, and secretarial. Alongside the public institutions there are also some private schools offering training in the tertiary professions (accountancy, computers, etc.).

University education involves temporary emigration to one of the centres of the University of the West Indies or to metropolitan universities. The first higher education cycle in some disciplines, however, may be begun in outpost departments of the regional university.

To sum up, therefore, the structure of the educational system of the Eastern Caribbean is characterized by the small number of possible educational careers, the lack of bridges between them and its general pyramid-shape form.

2.1.3 The school map and school curricula

In most cases the education system has grown at the expense of the primary cycle whose premises are often antiquated and the teachers little trained if at all. In addition, the most famous schools are often run by the church.

The gap in the pace of growth as between the school-age population and school facilities is such that cases of overcrowding are frequent. In some cases to get maximum use out of the facilities, the system of alternate classes has to be used.

Teaching materials and aids are often lacking but the allocation of resources may well vary considerably from school to school - disparities, incidentally, which are found in most countries in the world.

One of the main obstacles to the development of education in the Caribbean is the rigidity of educational content and method. For some years now a school manual production unit has been operating in the ministries but three factors, at least, are holding back the adaptation of curricula and teaching techniques:

the high cost of innovation for small countries;

inadequate teacher training; and

dependence on British diplomas.

At the primary level, education covers four main subjects: English language, mathematics, the social sciences and the exact sciences. The classical conception of the end-of-school examination does not encourage educational initiatives on the part of the teachers or the ministry. The first to suffer from this sclerosis in education are children from disadvantaged - often rural - environments and from Creole-speaking backgrounds in Saint Lucia and Dominica. The combined effect of the ill-adapted school map and curricula is that a large number of 15-year old children are thrust on to the labour market with no academic qualification and a low level of general education.

Neither is the situation much more favourable at secondary level where the examinations at the end of the secondary cycle are set and also marked by centres in London and Cambridge. Admittedly the Caribbean Examination Council is slowly taking the place of this system but it is still being resisted by both parents and teachers.

2.1.4 Enrolment and efficiency

Trends in the illiteracy rate provide a global indicator of the educational situation. Except in Saint Lucia, the rate is relatively low in all countries in the Eastern Caribbean (between 2.3 and 5.9 per cent of the population aged 15 and over, compared with 18.3 per cent in Saint Lucia. Source: Unesco).

Another indicator is the breakdown of the population by educational level. In all countries in the area the vast majority of the population has reached a level corresponding at least to primary education. However, enrolment trends over the last 20 years do not seem to have brought much change in the share of the population with secondary education, except in Saint Christopher and Nevis where two thirds of the population over 25 have reached that level. In all cases the proportion of people with higher education is very low and growing only slowly. This profile is the result of the way the educational system functions.

A study of gross enrolment rates in secondary education shows up some marked disparities between countries. In Grenada the figure is relatively high - 83 per cent - whereas the figure for Saint Lucia for the same period (1980) was only 28 per cent (source: Unesco) showing how far behind this country is not only as compared with other countries in the Eastern Caribbean but also in relation to the average for the Latin America and Caribbean region.

At primary level gross enrolment is everywhere higher than 100 per cent except in Saint Christopher and Nevis. For the reference year - 1980 - Grenada had the highest enrolment rate in both primary and secondary education.

As for efficiency in primary education, the high results in Saint Lucia and Grenada simply reflect the policy of automatic promotion into the next higher class subject to one condition - regular attendance. The rule is there to guarantee that every child has a minimum number of years at school. Nevertheless, the low wastage is astonishing, even allowing for the automatic promotion mechanism.

Analysis of the enrolment figures for secondary education has to make allowance for the fact that the majority of pupils are enrolled in the short cycle. The number able to get into long-cycle secondary schools in the area is small.

2.1.5 The funding of the system

The share of Gross National Product earmarked for education is an indicator of the educational effort being made. It varies fairly considerably from country to country and from year to year. In a given country these changes could be an indication of faulty planning. The declining trends that sometimes appear from year to year, whereas manpower requirements continue to rise are evidence of an educational policy that is not sufficiently sustained.

The breakdown of expenditure by level of education, related to school enrolment figures reveals the priorities adopted for educational development. Operating appropriations, naturally enough, decline as the level rises. However, budgetary differences are not solely due to enrolment differences. The distribution also reflects the favourable treatment given to secondary and post-secondary education and also to the higher unit cost in the higher levels because of the differences in the curriculum and in the equipment required. It is nevertheless clear that there is a distribution of resources that is unfavourable to school conditions at the primary level and therefore to the detriment, ultimately, of the most disadvantaged populations.

2.1.6 Future prospects

Future trends in enrolment will largely depend on demographic trends. The projections worked out by the Population Reference Bureau in Washington indicate different situations in different countries.

If present population growth rates are maintained Antigua and Barbuda should see a slight increase in the school-age population. Conversely, a slight rise in fertility or a reduced rise in emigration would cancel out that increase. In Dominica and Grenada, population trends should not put any extra pressure on the educational system because of the declining fertility rate. In Saint Christopher and Nevis (and Montserrat) a continuance of present trends would reduce the school-age population. In Saint Lucia and Saint Vincent and the Grenadines achievement of any balance in school enrolment is likely to be doubtful for a long time if present fertility rates continue. If they were to fall this would considerably improve the conditions for educational development.

At the present stage in their population development the micro-territories of the Eastern Caribbean appear to be in a relatively favourable situation for bringing in an educational policy designed to improve both the quantitative indicators and the quality of education. This context represents a real opportunity to reduce the selective nature of the systems and in so doing to increase their effects on social mobility.

At very least such a strategy requires the continuance of the present effort being made on behalf of education and therefore the maintenance of aid programmes in this field. Another condition appears to be a lower fertility rate in Saint Vincent and the Grenadines and Saint Lucia, since otherwise these two countries could experience a sharp worsening in their enrolment conditions - already relatively bad - and also find themselves excluded from a general process favourable to an improvement in enrolment in the subregion.

External conditions therefore promise considerable progress in the development of the educational systems in the countries of the Eastern Caribbean but if that is to happen, there has to be real educational planning at the internal level.

2.2 THE FRENCH WEST INDIES

2.2.1 Integrated in a developed environment but with continuing underdevelopment: the terms of the paradox

In their location, area, population pattern, history, culture and, to some extent, economy, Guadeloupe and Martinique are close to the other countries of the Lesser Antilles. But whereas most of the territories of the Caribbean are now independent, these islands remain part of what is today the French and will tomorrow be the European area.

Originally the structures of the French West Indies were those of the plantation economy all centred on the production of sugar and rum. This colonial type of society has gradually changed helped by the change in its competitive position and in particular by the effect of its growing incorporation in the metropolitan institutional framework.

The legal conversion of the territories into 'départements' in 1946 set the seal on a process of integration which then spread to the social sphere. This modernization of society did not bring about the hoped-for development of the economy. That is not to say that the integration measures decreed by the French Government had no effect on the production system. On the contrary, over the last 40 years they have brought about a profound change in the profile of the economy: gradually the plantation economy has been replaced by a system based on public transfers granted by the metropolis and this mounting and massive injection of capital into these micro-economies has slowly uncoupled the generation and distribution of income from the act of production. This phenomenon has been accompanied by a contraction in productive activities and at the same time has allowed the tertiary and in particular public service sector to swell to large dimensions.

This twofold trend - the shrinking of productive functions and the growth and structuring of the political and administrative apparatus - in a context of vigorous population growth has caused a serious imbalance in the labour market. With the expansion in the tertiary sector proving incapable of making up for the collapse of the agricultural sector and the weakness of industry, demographic pressure has played its part in building up large and persistent manpower surpluses. In 1986 the unemployment rate was 27 per cent in Guadeloupe and 31 per cent in Martinique, three times what it was for France as a whole.

The scale and growth of unemployment pose the question of how to integrate young people into working life. Over half the population is under 25 and 57 per cent of the 15-24 age-group are out of work in Martinique and 55 per cent in Guadeloupe.

This problem does, of course, stem from the demographic situation and the inability of the economy to generate enough long-term jobs. But it is also a problem of society because, in a country where the values and symbols of consumption take precedence over those related to production, creation and change, socio-economic competition is primarily concerned with the protection of acquired interests and is initiated by and for those categories that are already integrated (including the many government servants) to the detriment of the young.

In the face of this relatively hostile socio-economic environment, the main recourse is to emigration, principally to metropolitan France, family solidarity, underemployment and also training. These strategies produce at least two telling effects: firstly the growth of the informal sector and the

beginnings of a trend towards a two-tier employment structure and secondly the blowing open of the conventional terms of active, inactive and unemployed. The scarcity of jobs coupled with the diversity of job-finding or compensatory schemes has created new types of status. What happens is that individual careers are increasingly taking winding routes alternating from employment to unemployment and including inactivity and training.

Today thw low level of education of the population and the inadequate qualifications of young people are blamed for the unemployment situation. It is true that illiteracy and failure at school still represent two evils having a lasting effect on efforts to increase the value of human resources. The 1982 census showed there were 24,000 illiterates in Guadeloupe and 18,000 in Martinique (8.7 and 6.4 per cent respectively of the population over 10). This disparity between the two islands stems from unequal treatment in the past, the school map in Martinique having developed more rapidly.

The clearly low level of qualification is another indicator of use in assessing the education question. Here again the figures are disastrous: in the 1982 census, those with no educational certificate at all accounted for 70 per cent of the population over 14 in Guadeloupe and 66 per cent in Martinique (for reference the figure in the metropolis was 39 per cent).

In this context, training is presented - and to some extent perceived - as the best way at the individual level of avoiding unemployment. Statistically, this strategy is expressed in the longer educational career and the mounting proportion of people entering for adult vocational training under the many schemes introduced by the authorities. It has also been shown that the likelihood of obtaining a job increases as the level of training rises. In 1986 only 11 per cent of the active population whose educational level was at least equal to the completion of secondary school were out of a job so there is definitely a correlation between educational level and unemployment.

That link does not go beyond certain limits: it would be wrong to blame failure to enter working life on the low qualifications of the persons concerned or even on their attitude towards the labour market. This interpretation, though commonly heard, disregards the real causes, namely the lack of economic growth and the shortage of jobs. Increased investment in vocational training may therefore also be analysed as a way for young people to delay coming on to a depressed labour market or as a control used by the authorities to contain the socio-economic tensions threatening to disrupt society (training as the 'social treatment of unemployment').

2.2.2 Transposition of the French institutional and legal system to the West Indies: decentralization of education

In 1983, as part of a process of wide-ranging decentralization, the French Government conferred new responsibilities in the field of education on a new political and administrative unit - the Region. The metropolitan territory was divided into 22 such regions, administered by an assembly elected by direct and universal suffrage. Since then, the economic policies laid down by this authority are written into the regional development plan geared to the central government's five-year plan. The links between central and regional government policies is officialized by contracts signed between the central government and the regions laying down the ways in which they are to act and also the financial participation of either side with the object of achieving common objectives.

In the case of education, power transferring legislation sets out precisely the responsibilities of the central government and those of the local authorities for both education and vocational training. The Region is now a central unit in the educational planning procedures. Regional policy is expressed in two kinds of document:

the regional vocational training plan which lays down policies for continuous vocational training; and

the compulsory educational forecasting plan which defines the future development of the secondary level of education (the primary and tertiary remain a central government responsibility, as do educational methods, curricula and personnel at all levels).

At the financial level the central government allocates funds to the regions corresponding to their responsibilities. For adult education there is an overall budget for the financing of regional programmes. In addition the European Community finances activities benefiting certain sections of the public under the European Social Fund.

With regard to the school system, a specific appropriation is designed to allow the Regional Councils to meet the costs for which they are responsible. These mainly concern the building, equipment and maintenance of second cycle secondary schools (general and technical 'lycées'). The 'collèges' (first cycle secondary) come under a different territorial authority: the General Council ('Conseil Général'). This elected assembly has powers which complement those of the Region and normally covers a smaller area: the 'département' (in view of their small area, Martinique and Guadeloupe are both a Region and a 'département' - they are 'Régions monodépartementales').

In all cases, part of the teaching costs and in particular staff salaries are the direct responsibility of the national education ministry.

This distribution of authority among the different administrative units according to the structures involved and the type of cost and competence results in a fairly complex web of responsibilities and, in this institutional context co-ordination is the only way to guarantee coherence, which is often at risk, among the different fields of action. Even so, the danger of conflict is ever present as is that of worsening interregional disparities.

Decentralization and its application to the overseas 'départements' provides an opportunity to match the supply of education more closely to real requirements and to socio-economic reality in the islands but the transposition of an institutional structure designed for metropolitan France to micro-island territories with underdeveloped economic structures poses many problems. To begin with the general administrative expense is considerable because of staff costs. Next, the logic of having diverse centres of decision and therefore different objectives is all the less secure given the small size of the space and population concerned. Thus, the transfer of powers and financing being incomplete, regional policy and the programmes of the central government and its various decentralized services spin a web of actions, the synergy of which is sometimes doubtful. Conversely, the risk of waste is high and the application of overall planning impossible.

The distribution of funds as between the many continuous education facilities and the school system is a matter of decision by the central government with the involvement of several ministries. Applied to a very small country, this cumbersome and disconnected procedure sometimes generates major imbalances to the detriment of education, in which the short term, via immediate retraining schemes, is all too easily advantaged as compared with the educational system which necessarily comes under the long-term heading.

To sum up, decentralization has indeed helped to shift education's centre of gravity to the island environment but the transposition without any profound change of an institutional structure designed for somewhere else has been detrimental to the planning processes and harmed the development of human resources. However, decentralization and its implantation are far from complete and a general judgement has to be qualified. Ultimately it will depend on the new relations that will become established between the overseas regions on the one hand and the French Central Government and Europe on the other.

2.2.3 Educational profile of the French West Indies

2.2.3.1 The structure of the educational system: the part adaptation of the French model to the island situation and the scattered geographical situation - the case of the university

As French 'départements', Martinique and Guadeloupe enjoy the same school system as that prevailing in metropolitan France (see notes and diagrams on the following pages). The only difference relates to higher education: the small size of the territories precludes any diversified development of post-secondary education and training. The creation of an interregional university - the University of the West Indies and Guyana - was an attempt to find an organization that would overcome the constraints imposed by the small populations, remoteness and territorial fragmentation of the French 'départements' in America.

Only Martinique and Guadeloupe have a university campus; Guyana with its very small population (73,000 at the 1982 census) has only an annex.

The educational organization governs the geographical distribution of what is taught. Legal and economic sciences are taught in both campuses, the exact and natural sciences only in Guadeloupe and the arts and human sciences in Martinique. The Guyana annex teaches law.

The geography of the disciplines map has its effect on students' strategy and in more than one case out of two where the chosen subject is not taught in the 'département' of origin, even though it may be in the other island, the student enrols in metropolitan France. In that way the transfer to higher education often implies a geographical displacement in the educational career and adds to emigration.

'Collège' pupils

At the end of primary education, the children start a two-year (6th and 5th grades) period, the same for all, at the end of which they have a three-way choice for their next move:

General (4th and 3rd grades). The 'collège' certificate is awarded at the end of the 3rd grade (based on school results or examination; examination for all to be reinstated in 1986).

Pre-vocational. This is for 14-16-year olds desiring pre-vocational training.

There are two pre-vocational classes:

pre-vocational level class (CPPN). The purpose of these is to help 14-year olds + to choose an occupation;

pre-apprenticeship class (CPA). These classes take children of 14-15 who have chosen their occupation.

Special education. This provides children in difficulty or disabled with the kind of schooling to suit their situation or state.

Special education is dispensed in 'collèges' (special education sections) or in national schools (ENP).

LEP pupils (LEP = vocational 'lycée')

These may be:

ex-3rd grade, to take a two-year course leading to the Brevet d'Etudes Professionnelles (BEP) or certain Certificats d'Aptitude Professionnelle (CAP); or

ex-5th grade in CPPN or CPA to take a three-year course leading to a CAP.

'Lycée' pupils (long second cycle)

On entry, children have the choice between two types of 2nd grade: 'détermination' (for deciding what 1st grade series to take) and 'spécifique' (specialized curriculum).

The routing procedures for promotion from 2nd to 1st grade provide access to one of the 1st grade series in accordance with the following types of education:

- literary: A
- scientific: 1st grade S leading on to the baccalauréat in the following series: C (maths and physical sciences), D (maths and natural sciences) and E (maths and technology)
- economic, social and management: B, G, H
- industrial technology: F (1)
- artistic and plastic arts: F (1)
- preparation for Brevet de Technicien (BT)

(1) = F1 to F12.

After the terminal grade, these series lead on to the different baccalauréats (A and E for the general baccalauréat and F, G and H for the technical baccalauréat.

Higher education pupils and students

Higher technician sections. These provide a two-year course after the baccalauréat and the BT leading up to the Brevet de Technicien Supérieur (BTS).

Classes preparing pupils for the Grandes Ecoles. Mostly these offer two-year courses in preparation for the entrance examinations to the Grandes Ecoles. There are no classes of this kind in the West Indies-Guyana education area.

The universities: in arts, science, law and economic science there is a first two-year cycle leading up to a diploma, DEUG (Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Générales) or DEUST (Diplôme d'Etudes Universitaires Scientifiques et Techniques).

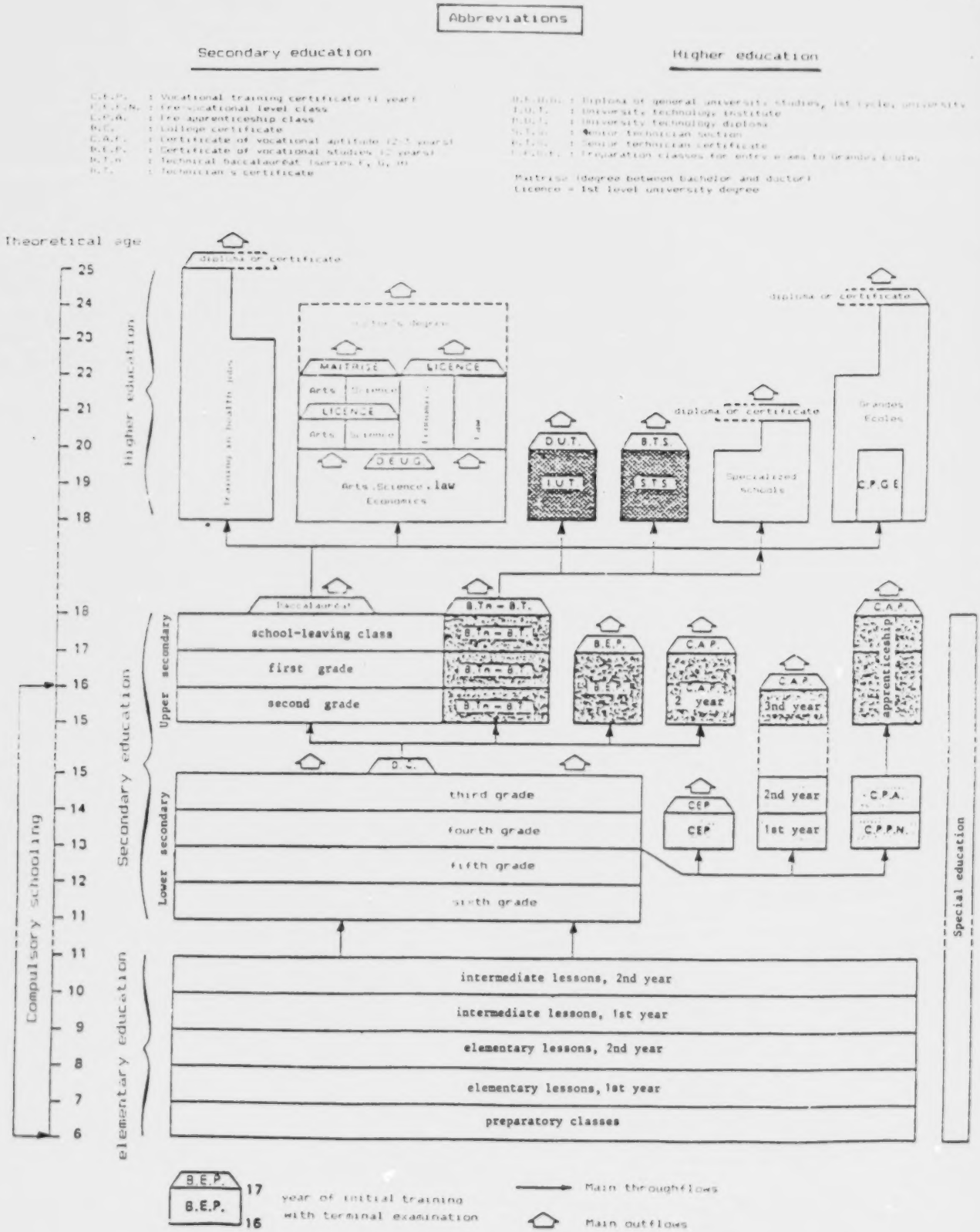
The second cycle also takes two years and leads up to a 'maîtrise'. The 'licence' (first level degree) is awarded at the end of the first year of this second cycle. In a third cycle students can continue studies and research which is firstly rewarded by a DEA (Diplôme d'Etudes Approfondies) or a DESS (Diplôme d'Etudes Supérieures Specialisées), and later, for those who go on, by a doctor's degree.

Within the universities there are university technology institutes (IUT) which offer two-year courses leading to a Diplôme Universitaire de Technologie (DUT). There is no IUT in the West Indies-Guyana area.

Non-university higher education schools: in metropolitan France these include engineering and business schools, secondary teacher training schools, etc.

Source: Les données Antilles-Guyane No. 11, Données Sociales, Ed. 1986 INSEE.

Diagram of educational system



Source: Les données Antilles-Guyane No. 11. Données sociales, Ed. 1986, INSEE

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2.2.3.2 An education system in vigorous but uneven growth

Trends in enrolment and the distribution of the school population over the various cycles of the educational system are a result of demographic factors and developments in the school map. Population changes and the lower fertility rate are reducing the pressure on the first links in the educational chain (primary level and 'collèges'). Conversely social demand is mounting strongly at secondary second cycle level and can only be partially met.

The decline in enrolment at the primary level is a direct result of the falling birth rate. It is worth noting that this decline has begun for a few years now to extend to the first cycle of the secondary level where enrolment has levelled off (Guadeloupe) or is even falling (Martinique).

The situation is very different in the second cycle of secondary education. Here the increase in enrolment is a result of the high birth rate of the past and also of the longer period spent at school due to the deterioration of the labour market and the school-building programme.

A study of the structure of secondary enrolment shows the major (Guadeloupe) and even predominant (Martinique) share accounted for by the short cycle which offers vocational training to children whose level is not high enough for entry to the long cycle. This pattern is specific to the school system in the West Indies as opposed to that in metropolitan France and is, in fact, one form of school failure. Thus the growth in enrolment has been far more rapid in short-cycle vocational training than in secondary long cycle.

Another particular feature is the majority that girls constitute in secondary education (over 50 per cent in the first cycle and over 60 per cent in the second). The reasons for this phenomenon are to be found in family strategies but also in the education map, the point being that industrial type sections in vocational training tend to attract more boys.

Enrolment trends (1970-1988)

Level	Guadeloupe		Martinique	
	1970-1971	1988-1989	1970-1971	1988-1989
Primary	65,071	35,639	62,986	34,805
Secondary 1st cycle	20,080	29,457	25,250	26,372
Secondary 2nd cycle				
short	2,345	7,273	1,502	7,124
long	3,467	7,594	3,114	6,642
Total, secondary	25,892	44,324	29,866	40,138

Source: Rectorat Antilles-Guyana, Statistical Service.

2.2.3.3 The question of the efficiency of the system: high wastage and job-finding problems

There are many symptoms of the poor performance of the educational system in both Martinique and Guadeloupe. The first is the volume and frequency of repetition at school, already manifest at primary level: only one third of schoolchildren move into secondary education at the 'normal' age (compared with two thirds at national level).

The career paths of the children are another indicator of school failure. Those considered to be too far behind at the end of the primary cycle are routed to the system's 'marginal' classes (pre-vocational or pre-apprenticeship classes). For many, approaching the end of the compulsory school period (16), this is their last spell of education before they enter active life. In the 1984-1985 school year enrolment in these classes totalled 12 per cent of the number of children in the primary cycle which is a very high figure. In other words a significant percentage of young people are discarded by the educational system and thrown on to the labour market without any kind of diploma.

The rapid growth of short vocational training courses already referred to is another sign of school failure. In most cases, the pupil's entry into these sections happens more by default and not as a result of choosing a form of education more specifically designed for learning a trade. In practice, therefore it is the children who are in difficulties during or at the end of the first secondary cycle that are sent to the vocational 'lycées'.

Examination results are a way of assessing not only the children but also the system. Here too the figures are disturbing. The efficiency of the short cycle measured by examination success rates is very low. In 1984 the success rate at examinations at the end of vocational courses came to about one third whereas nearly two thirds of candidates succeeded in metropolitan France. In other words, after allowing for repeaters, about 50 per cent of the children on the roll for the last year at vocational 'lycée' must have dropped out and joined the labour market with no qualification.

The results in the 'baccalauréat', the examination at the end of the long secondary cycle, are better because in fact the selection process, to a large extent, has already taken place. In 1985, the success rate ranged from 53 to 60 per cent depending on the series (general or technical 'baccalauréat'). By and large it is 10-15 points lower than the average for the French 'départements' as a whole.

Essentially, the streaming process can be likened to a cascade selection system designed to produce an educational and also social élite. Repetition and, ultimately, school failure show a close correlation with social origin. A survey made by the Rectorate shows that nearly two thirds of pupils whose parents have no educational certificate have fallen behind before reaching the secondary level compared with only one quarter of those of parents who have certificates, the proportion being in inverse proportion to the level of attainment. This phenomenon of social reproduction is the expression of a hierarchized and élitist society.

There are many reasons for failure at school. Statistically, though it may not be possible to establish a causal link between social background and school results, it is clear that these two variables are to some extent correlated. Also, the frequency of 'matrifocality', a symptom of family dislocation, may in some cases constitute a handicap that is often compounded by socio-economic insecurity.

The weakness of the educogenic background is combined, particularly in rural environments, with Creole/French bilingualism, which often takes on the proportions of diglossia. This linguistic aspect poses the so far unresolved problem of how to teach French in a Creole-speaking environment and, except for a few pilot experiments, the question is largely disregarded by the schools.

On top of these external factors there are systemic variables which also contribute to school failure. The whole of the teaching body, for example, is less well qualified than in metropolitan France. In primary education about 50 per cent of teachers do not even have the 'baccalauréat' and less than a quarter have received preliminary teacher training (given by the Ecole Normale - teacher training college). At secondary level, only 1.2 per cent of teachers have their 'agrégation' compared with 6.4 per cent in metropolitan France. Conversely 14.1 per cent of teaching staff have temporary appointments (6.3 per cent in metropolitan France).

Lastly, it is agreed today that the shortage of capacity in the second secondary cycle (vocational 'lycées' and general and technical 'lycées') is responsible for excluding a large number of children from the educational system. The saturation of the school map is therefore one of the causes of the system's low efficiency at the present time.

In addition, however, to its low internal efficiency, the lasting and deep-rooted nature of the imbalance in the labour market makes the link between training and employment increasingly weak. The selectivity that operates at diploma level is very real but the fact that the stock of job seekers is largely made up of the unskilled or poorly qualified also reflects the structure of school-leavers. For as long as the economy fails to create more jobs, the improvement of the system's internal efficiency will do more to raise the educational level of the unemployed than to improve matters for seekers of employment.

2.2.3.4 Prospects of change

In both Guadeloupe and Martinique clearly the most urgent need is to expand secondary second cycle capacity for, at the moment, the inadequacy of the school map at this level is a major obstacle in the way of increasing the average length of the school career and thus, in the long term, improving the educational level of the population. The objective that the Guadeloupe education ministry has set itself is a 74 per cent enrolment rate for an age-group at a level equivalent to the end-of-secondary examination ('baccalauréat'). At the moment, this rate is about 20 per cent in the American 'départements' which is roughly about half the national average. In the light of this difference at the start the objective would seem impossible to achieve by the target date.

The Regional Council in Martinique has set itself the more modest goal of 53 per cent. Even that lower target means creating something like 5,000 more places in the secondary second cycle for which two general and five vocational 'lycées' would have to be built in under ten years.

The Guadeloupe Regional Council has not yet come to the end of its long-term planning and so details of its policy and their effects on the school map are not yet clear. However, the population and enrolment projections worked out by the statistical department of the Rectorate suggest that requirements will follow similar trends to those forecast in Martinique.

The additional effort that will be needed is therefore considerable not only in the building of schools but also in the creation and filling of jobs and the retraining of some of the existing staff. The financial implications of this policy to strengthen enrolment rates are also considerable for both the Regional Council and the central government and there is, currently, nothing to suggest that the necessary resources will in fact be made available.

But if the catching up is done in time, the probable lightening of demographic pressure should enable the educational system to absorb these deep-reaching changes in structure. In that case, the quantative equation between school capacity and the numbers to be taught could see the beginning of a phase in which concerns of a pedagogic nature and the pursuit of quality in teaching will predominate.

CONCLUSION

This study of the educational system in the states of the Eastern Caribbean compared with that in the French West Indies throws up a large number of differences. Political independence on the one hand and membership of the French world on the other mean that conditions for planning differ considerably. What is more, the systems of British inspiration are unlike the French model in many ways. Even so, reaching beyond these distinctions, it is possible to perceive a certain similarity in the pattern of constraints bearing on the educational system.

First of all, the determinants of viability of these micro-insular areas are basically similar in nature. For the independent islands, foreign aid is an essential parameter of socio-economic equilibrium and of the funding of the educational system. In the French West Indies, the economic and social structure is wholly dependent on public transfers from metropolitan France. In both cases, therefore, the extreme dependence on external inputs is a dominant factor both in the growth of the domestic product and in the strategy of the players on the social stage: the financing of the educational system and the attitude of families towards education is the product of this domination.

This similarity as regards the financing of the economy is also apparent when we look at the structuring of the production system: tertiarization is under way in all these small countries some of which have totally discarded their plantation economy heritage (Antigua and Barbuda for example). The new employment structure that this is bringing about requires the training system to change its position in order to be able to offer firms the skills they need.

But in every case, smallness itself makes it impossible, at the level of each individual country, to meet all the needs that emerge either because those needs are numerically insufficient or else because the resources required exceed national funding capacities. Small area together with geographical proximity then causes the emergence of joint educational facilities.

Lastly, the exposed nature of micro-societies reflected at the economic level by the high foreign trade ratios is also apparent where human resources are concerned in the scale of migration. Emigration often represents a loss of skills ('brain drain') but it may also be an investment in human capital if it is a question of the temporary absence of individuals for training purposes. Also, the return of nationals who have spent several years abroad constitutes a valuable injection of skill and experience. Migratory movements of this kind have been growing fairly vigorously in the Caribbean during the last few years both in the French islands and in their English-language neighbours. The returns are not, of course, enough to make up for the departures. However this may be, the variables represented by these various movements deeply affect the skills and volume of manpower available in the territories under study and should therefore be fully allowed for in educational and training policies.

III. LONG RANGE EDUCATION/EMPLOYMENT PLANNING AS APPLIED TO SMALL COUNTRIES

3.1 ENROLMENT PROJECTIONS

Designing the school map implies a number of methodological stages culminating, for a given horizon, in a balance between educational demand and supply. This process for determining school needs and the educational resources necessary to meet them is primarily based on projections of school-age population, a statistical exercise using the results of population forecasts of course. In small countries, the problem of forecasting emigration flows already referred to is an additional methodological difficulty. Another obstacle is the fact that the smaller the scale the less feasible it is to take internal migrations into account - once a certain stage is passed the data are so disaggregated that they are no longer meaningful for projections.

The methods most commonly used for enrolment projections are three in number: the enrolment rates by age method, the apparent progression rates method and the flows method.

3.1.1 The enrolment rates by age method

This method uses the enrolment objective set for a given age-group of the school-age population to determine future enrolment figures at a given level of the education system. This enables coarse aggregates to be worked out for future educational supply requirements (premises, equipment and staff) and the related costs.

With this method, which is relatively simple to use, the workings can be based on general aggregates and the effect of changing enrolment rate targets on the school map can be estimated. It has the advantage of supplying the planner quickly with aggregated figures that can be used as a guide for an initial assessment of the budgets necessary to achieve the objectives set.

However, to set objectives it is necessary to have relatively detailed information on the present distribution of enrolment by age and at the different educational levels. In addition, the approach provides only a very broad view of the educational system and disregards the interrelations between the different educational levels and cycles. It is a static method and pays no heed to the dynamics of enrolment or its pedagogic dimension.

3.1.2 The apparent progression rates method

The apparent progression rate is obtained by relating enrolment at a given level during the reference year to enrolment recorded at the lower level the year before. It is more of a structure indicator than an indicator of efficiency because it mirrors the system's reception capacity at the different levels.

The method then consists in using the rates worked out in this way to project future enrolment figures for each level. The procedure is very simple because only the change in total enrolment from one year to the next is involved: data on repetition or pupils' age are not included in the calculation, so this method can be used regardless of the degree of sophistication of the educational statistics. A problem does arise however for the first grades in each cycle because in many cases the pupils come from a variety of sources.

Very simple though it is, this method is of limited use to the extent that the projections based on it are strictly determined by past trends. In

fact its main utility is for forecasting new school year class numbers at establishment level.

3.1.3 The flows method

This requires the construction of a mathematical model in which the educational process is regarded as a system of interrelated components. Population trends constitute a constraint upstream of the system. Within the system itself, the functioning of the educational process at each level is determined by three variables: progression rate, repetition rate and leaving rate. Within this framework and account being taken of a given population trend, the efficiency of the system and its final output are conditioned by the educational strategy adopted, expressed by the value of the three rates. To be coherent, the chosen policy needs to take the inertia of the system into account and make its reference the present situation. Since the sum of the three rates is necessarily one, arithemetical logic forces those responsible for education to take the interdependencies between the different levels of the educational system into account. This method is of particular interest for the secondary level, where enrolment forecasts can be deduced more or less directly from population projections.

To use the flows method, tables have to be drawn up showing sources for year n, in other words enrolment for year n-1. This gives a matrix showing the origins of the schoolchildren at the different levels. Simple transposition then converts the table into a destination matrix after which it is an easy matter to work out the system's rate of efficiency. For each flows matrix there is therefore a rates matrix characterizing the functioning of secondary education. The set of flows for a given year describes the routing probabilities.

The method presents the advantage of allowing all the rates to be influenced at all the levels. Thus several simulations can be constructed based on alternative scenarios. The objectives assigned to the system can be framed in different ways: to influence the progression rates, to reduce the numbers leaving the system or to aim at enrolment equal to a certain proportion of a given age-group at a given level.

The matrix can be based on enrolment for the last available year or the average of several years in order to smooth out past fluctuations. The projections are then arrived at by matricial calculus using appropriate software. It is possible to modify the values of certain rates during the projection operation in order to take probable or desired changes in efficiency into account. This considerable flexibility in use is a major advantage.

By and large the projections are the less reliable the farther away the forecasting horizon so it would seem wise to use an approach by stages. First a series of long-term (ten-year) projections would seem essential in order to judge the effects of alternative policies on the school map (school building and staff requirements). Next, the medium-term (five-year) annual projections supply adjusted data for the continuous guidance of the system.

The flows method, however, imposes some very strict demands. In particular it is inapplicable unless the educational statistics function is sufficiently developed. To construct the matrix, for example, reliable information has to be available at the end of each year on the origin of each of the children changing class (see the matrix constructed for Guadeloupe and Martinique in the annex). In a small country however, the low number of secondary schools makes the task very easy.

3.2 DESIGNING A LONG-RANGE FORECASTING INSTRUMENT

Long-range forecasting is an essential way of preparing for the future but the conventional macro-economic planning techniques are ill-suited to small countries whose statistical apparatus is not, in most cases, sufficiently developed or reliable. What is more, the extreme vulnerability of small areas and their great sensitivity to outside influences makes forecasting how activity and employment will develop in the different sectors of the economy on the basis of an aggregative approach extremely unsafe. So the problem is to find an alternative system enabling three things to be forecast:

evolution of employment trends;

changes affecting occupation structures;

correspondence between occupation and educational level.

This lack of data becomes a major obstacle when it comes to analysing the relations between economy, employment and education. In many small countries the population census is the only source of information immediately available. The census data include:

population structure by age and sex;

migratory balance;

active population in work by age, sex and sector of activity;

distribution of active population by socio-economic category;

active population distribution by level of education (or by educational certificate obtained).

An analysis of the changes taking place between two censuses provides an 'ex post' picture of the main demographic and economic movements accompanying the development process. But this information is not enough and additional studies including an analysis of employment structures in the sensitive sectors of the economy are particularly useful for an 'ex ante' view. It has to be said that the planning or education ministries in most small countries lack the manpower to carry out this type of study. In regions where there are universities, contracts could be placed with them for their researchers to do the work in conjunction with the ministerial departments concerned.

This proposal has its origin in a broader strategy, namely the development of methods for detecting signals indicative of the state of the employment market in which the objects are:

to have a better understanding of the phenomena of integration in and changing over to working life at the end of the educational career; and

to analyse sectoral employment markets (shortages or surpluses of manpower or of certain skills, occupational mobility, migration, pay structures, etc.).

In this field bilateral and international co-operation can be of valuable help in terms of both finance and methodology.

In addition to surveys, a three-part system could be set up to perform three functions: observation, study and data collection and distribution.

(i) The first thing is to form a network of correspondents in firms and elsewhere who are well-informed about the employment situation in a given sector or geographical area. The role of these key informers is to provide qualitative information, in interviews, that would concern - in particular - internal manpower and training policies in the 'modern' sectors.

(ii) The next would be to create sectoral inter-institutional working parties under the aegis of the education or planning ministry bringing together both private and public sectors. The task of these cells of observation and reflection would be to analyse development prospects and their impact on skill requirements in key sectors. The thinking could be based on the economic data provided by the ministries responsible and on the results of the surveys and meetings referred to above. The information needed for this process relates to:

employment in general;

its structure;

employment movements;

unemployment.

In this framework, the sectoral approach has the advantage of reducing the field of investigation and enabling better account to be taken of the logic of the production structure. It also makes it easier to include national development priorities. In most small countries, the sectors concerned are to be found among the following:

agriculture;

fishing;

building;

agro-food;

tourism;

transport;

financial activities;

other tertiary activities.

After analysing the dynamics and operation of the labour market and assessing skill requirements account has to be taken of trends in the output of the education system. Here it is a matter of determining:

the flows of young people leaving the education system and their structure by type of education, level and speciality (this information can be obtained from the education projections);

flows in continuous education by type of training;

conditions as regards finding employment on leaving school (which can only be discovered by means of surveys).

The comparison between skill requirements and the future output of the education system should show up areas where the two are out of gear. These

indicators can then be used for the formulation of educational policy, but the process is not mechanical and the results obtained are expressed more in terms of trends or orders of magnitude than in those of precise enrolment figures.

(iii) The third is to build up a data bank in order to be able to accumulate and update national information on employment and education in a single centre because targeted mobilization of information is an essential part of the planning process. Small countries have also much to gain from collecting information about trends in certain fields at the international level for at least two reasons.

Firstly, in some sectors, employment organization, technology and job structures have little relation to size of country. Cases in point are the catering industry, the financial sector, telecommunications, international transport, health and office jobs.

Secondly, the importation of consumer goods and, through them, new technologies dictates the skill trends in certain occupations. This applies in particular to maintenance and repair jobs (cars, consumer electronics, computers, office equipment, etc.). In this way small countries, with their knowledge of the changes under way in the industrialized countries, can save themselves costly research and forecast with relative ease the developments that are likely in skill requirements in certain sectors.

3.3 THE PURSUIT OF GREATER SYNERGY IN RESOURCES

A small population and the therefore relatively small number of school-age children is, in some ways, an advantage for an educational planner. With small numbers it is, in theory, easier to organize supply and co-ordinate resources. In reality, variety of decision centres and fragmentation of responsibility, even within a small state, hinder co-ordination of education facilities. However, the paradox is not unchangeable. It is possible to improve the complementarity of resources.

To do so requires a set of measures concerned with information, assessment and guidance. The collection of data on the educational map, referred to above, is not only a useful tool for the students or trainees using the system, it is also an essential instrument for planners, helping them to avoid duplications and to provide bridges at the overall level between types of schooling and facilities (education system, continuous training courses).

Optimum use of the available supply of education requires, as a preliminary, knowledge of the target publics and therefore the setting up of evaluation systems especially designed for adult education. Efficiency must not be the exclusive concern of education, continuous training schemes financed out of public funds need also to be subject to productivity constraints. Procedures for the evaluation of publics going on to continuous training after leaving the school system are therefore needed.

Indeed, information and evaluation machinery is essential for the guidance of pupils and trainees in the various educational programmes and streams. Where continuous training facilities exist, particularly for young adults, the co-ordination of resources should, in a small country, allow educational careers to be planned that interconnect the educational system with retraining and further training programmes.

But this kind of prospect implies that an interface be set up between the bodies responsible for the various establishments. This could be an informal inter-ministerial structure in which all the government departments involved in education could be represented, e.g.:

ministry responsible for education;

ministry responsible for agriculture;

ministry responsible for health;

ministry responsible for community development;

ministry responsible for the civil service.

The difficulty lies in effectively interrelating, within one and the same strategy, firstly the various types of education or other permanent structures (agricultural and paramedical training) and secondly ad hoc programmes, often financed by international aid. However, it is only through this co-ordination between the various responsible departments that any synergy can develop among the various education and training facilities.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

The purpose here is not to end the debate and bring thinking on education in small countries to a close. In addition to its factual interest, this analysis of the dynamics and functioning of the educational system in the Eastern Caribbean and the French West Indies has helped to identify common problems and above all to consider planning tools scaled to their size. In that connection the subjects dealt with are not confined to methods (enrolment projections and skill trend forecasting) which, however refined they may be, are of no value if the objective, i.e. technical and also institutional, conditions for their use are not met. It is because of this that the proposal outlined is based on ministerial co-operation and consultation of the private sector.

The teaching/learning aspect has been to some extent disregarded in this study and yet it is the heart of the educational process. It was felt necessary, however, to look upstream first, i.e. at the general planning of the system. So questions remain, including at least three that are of significant importance for small countries:

Teaching methods: what may be expected of sandwich courses and distance education?

Validation: what can be done to reconcile international recognition of educational certificates with the adaptation of curricula to cultural reality?

School establishments and their environment: in what ways does the basic unit of the educational system, the school, fit in with the elementary development process, namely community development?

A comparison of experience and dissemination of the results obtained in that way would certainly help towards solving these various questions.

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STATISTICAL ANNEXES

(Economy, population, employment, education)

THE ENGLISH-LANGUAGE ISLANDS

POPULATION AND UNEMPLOYMENT IN THE
EAST CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

Country	Total Population (1980) (1)	Unemployment (estimated) (2)
		%
Antigua and Barbados	75,200	15.0 (1985)
Dominica	72,311	17.5 (1984)
Grenada	91,300	21.0 (1985)
Montserrat	11,606	5.8 (1984)
St Kitts-Nevis	43,309	30.0 (1985)
St Lucia	120,300	24.0 (1985)
St Vincent and the Grenadines	97,845	20 to 25 (1985) (3)
TOTAL	511,871	-

Sources: (1) L. Bouvier, The Caribbean, PRB Occasional Series, Population Reference Bureau, 1984.

(2) Caribbean and Central American Databook, Caribbean/ Central American Action, Washington, 1987.

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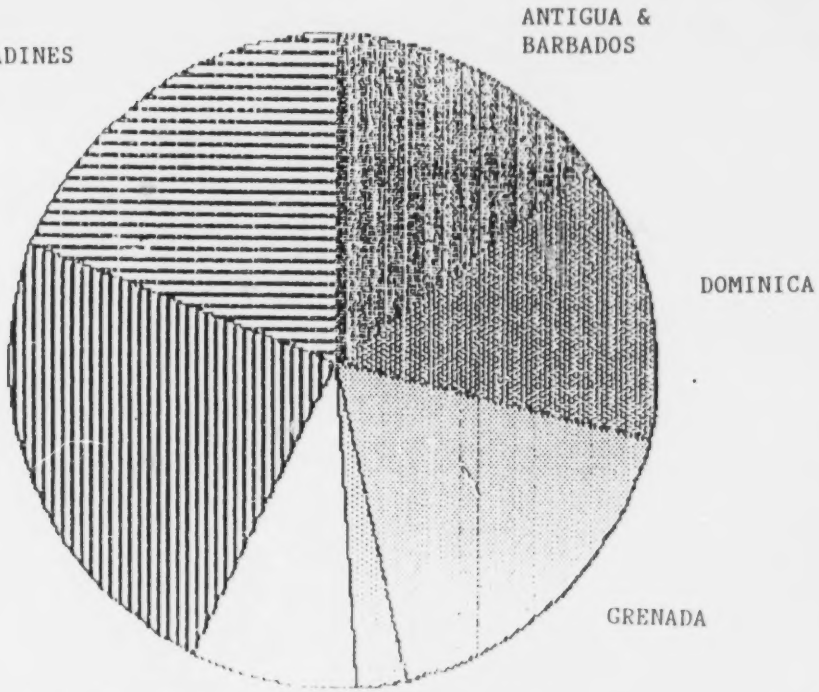
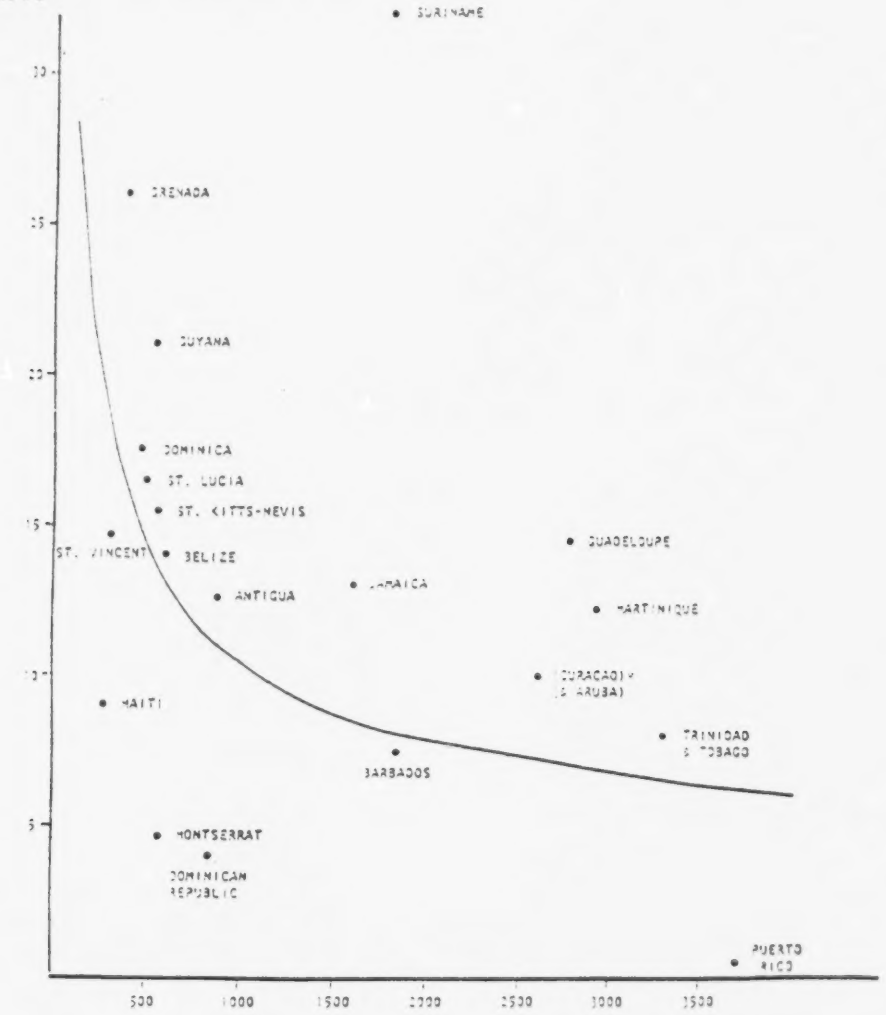
POPULATION DISTRIBUTION IN THE OECS COUNTRIES



NET EMIGRATION BY PER CAPITA PRODUCT 1975-1979

Estimated net annual emigration/1000
1975-1979



Per capita product, 1977
in US dollars

* for 1970-1974 and 1972

Source : J.P.Guengant, Caribbean Population Dynamics : Emigration and Fertility Challenges, Conference of Caribbean Parliamentarians on Population and Development, Barbados, June, 1985.

PROJECTIONS OF SCHOOL-AGE POPULATION (1) AND WORKING AGE POPULATION (2) IN THE EASTERN CARIBBEAN COUNTRIES

ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS

A : Fertility rate : 2.4, Net migration : 0
B : Fertility rate : 2.4, Net emigration : 250
C : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net migration : 0

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	16,809	16,457	19,265	18,841	20,191	21,447
B	16,809	15,524	17,469	16,000	16,314	16,467
C	16,809	15,335	16,856	16,018	16,038	16,262

(2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	29,335	39,015	42,742	54,981	57,538	61,950
B	29,335	38,057	43,374	48,871	50,401	49,604
C	29,335	39,334	47,335	52,658	55,294	55,058

DOMINICA

A : Fertility rate : 3.4, Net emigration : 800
B : Fertility rate : 2.6, Net emigration : 400
C : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net migration : 0
D : Fertility rate : 3.4, Net migration : 400

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	21,163	14,882	19,005	17,407	16,437	16,956
B	21,163	16,276	18,234	17,580	17,116	16,981
C	21,163	17,665	18,532	18,177	18,401	18,077
D	21,163	16,276	22,506	23,562	25,482	29,597

(2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	25,136	32,903	36,447	40,455	43,394	40,557
B	25,136	34,694	41,157	47,360	50,551	50,200
C	25,136	36,485	45,872	54,389	59,745	61,137
D	25,136	34,696	41,169	49,251	56,857	62,054

GRENADA

A : Fertility rate : 3.5, Net emigration : 1,800
B : Fertility rate : 3.5, Net emigration : 900
C : Fertility rate : 2.8, Net emigration : 900
D : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net migration : 0

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	23.123	25.057	21.625	20.982	18.675	16.492
B	23.123	26.148	26.918	30.150	32.027	35.349
C	23.123	26.148	22.550	23.863	23.416	22.756
D	23.123	27.209	22.283	23.330	23.587	22.590

(2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	30.752	31.382	33.760	32.929	30.641	26.774
B	30.752	37.265	46.161	53.477	60.949	67.576
C	30.752	37.265	46.161	51.443	54.410	55.303
D	30.752	42.963	58.533	69.640	75.532	78.040

MONSERRAT

A : Fertility rate : 2.3, Net emigration : 100
B : Fertility rate : 2.3, Net emigration : 0
C : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net emigration : 100
D : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net emigration : 0

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	2694	2016	2232	1966	1795	1649
B	2694	2086	2652	2668	2708	2855
C	2694	2016	2087	1787	1558	1345
D	2694	2086	2477	2382	2376	2405

(2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	4128	4570	4778	4852	4554	4004
B	4128	5342	6362	7374	7980	8226
C	4128	4570	4778	4805	4350	3537
D	4128	5342	6362	7296	7729	7728

SAINT LUCIA

A : Fertility rate : 4.5, Net emigration : 1,500
B : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net emigration : 750
C : Fertility rate : 2.9, Net emigration : 1,500
D : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net migration : 0
E : Fertility rate : 4.5, Net migration : 0

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	37.595	35.936	44.964	56.425	66.071	65.711
B	37.595	33.883	22.862	29.613	24.846	21.814
C	37.595	35.926	27.017	33.316	28.904	27.350

2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	34.693	45.311	58.242	72.248	86.034	121.250
B	34.693	49.098	68.371	80.662	93.850	81.757
C	34.693	47.719	58.174	68.260	70.062	71.727

ST KITTS-NEVIS

A : Fertility rate : 3.6, Net emigration : 800
B : Fertility rate : 2.5, Net emigration : 400
C : Fertility rate : 3.6, Net migration : 0
D : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net migration : 0

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	10.886	8.968	9.679	7.577	5.509	3.873
B	10.886	10.142	8.519	8.541	7.314	6.383
C	10.886	11.308	15.784	18.621	22.236	27.629
D	10.886	11.308	9.646	11.114	11.015	11.070

(2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	14.915	16.556	16.829	17.305	15.561	11.786
B	14.915	18.446	21.527	23.681	24.066	20.433
C	14.915	20.376	25.588	34.412	43.404	52.247
D	14.915	20.200	25.578	31.290	33.942	36.169

ST VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES

A : Fertility rate : 4.5, Net emigration : 1,000
B : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net emigration : 500
C : Fertility rate : 2.8, Net emigration : 1,000
D : Fertility rate : 2.1, Net migration : 0
E : Fertility rate : 4.5, Net migration : 0

(1)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	28.570	29.180	36.933	42.706	50.892	59.713
B	28.570	30.159	25.389	24.372	24.470	22.137
C	28.570	29.180	24.200	25.619	24.663	22.931

(2)

Scenario	1980	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030
A	31.259	40.981	47.607	57.470	73.741	90.098
B	31.259	43.114	55.693	66.862	70.153	70.824
C	31.259	39.509	47.563	53.314	55.913	55.198

Source : L.F.Bouvier, The Caribbean, Yesterday Today and Tomorrow, PRB Occasional Series, Population Reference Bureau, 1984.

Note : TFR : Total Fertility Rate.

ENGLISH-LANGUAGE COUNTRIES OF EASTERN CARIBBEAN
CLASSIFIED BY INCOME GROUP (1985)

Country	Per capita GNP ($) (1)	Population (millions) (1)	Average growth (%) (2)		GNP - current year(1) millions of $
			Per cap. GNP	GNP	
1- LOW INCOME COUNTRIES					
ANGUILLA	810	0.01	0.9	2.3	10
2- LOW MIDDLE INCOME COUNTRIES					
DOMINICA	1,150	0.08	2.7	3.5	90
GRENADA	970	0.10	2.7	3.1	NA
ST KITTS-NEVIS	1,150	0.04	2.8	2.8	70
ST LUCIA	1,250	0.14	4.1	6.2	170
ST VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES	850	0.12	3.4	5.3	100
3- HIGH MIDDLE INCOME COUNTRIES					
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS	2,020	0.08	3.5	4.6	160
MONTSERRAT	3,440	0.01	7.2	7.2	40

Notes: (1): 1985
(2): period 1975-1985

Source: OECD, Co-operation for development, Report for 1987, Paris 1988

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION
BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT

Country	Year	Age-group	No schooling	First level	Second level	Post-secondary
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS	1960	15 +	3.3	83.1	11.3	0.4
DOMINICA	1960	15 +	13.4	79.0	6.4	0.5
	1981	25 +	6.6	80.5	11.1	1.7
GRENADA	1960	15 +	6.7	84.7	7.7	0.5
	1980	25 +	2.2	87.8	8.5	1.5
ST KITTS-NEVIS	1960	15 +	3.8	89.1	5.9	0.4
	1980	25 +	1.1	29.6	67.2	2.1
ST VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES	1960	15 +	7.9	85.4	5.8	0.3
	1980	25 +	2.4	88.0	8.2	1.4
ST LUCIA	1960	15 +	26.2	69.7	3.3	0.3
	1980	25 +	17.5	74.5	6.8	1.3

Sources: For 1960: G.W. Roberts and N. Abdullah, 'Some Observations on the Educational Position of the British Caribean', Social and Economic Studies, 14, 145, University of the West Indies, 1965.

For 1980: Unesco

ILLITERACY(1) AS A PERCENTAGE OF POPULATION AGE 15 AND OVER (1970)

Country	Total both sexes	Men %	Women %	Difference between sexes (F-M)
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS (2)	11.3	NA	NA	NA
DOMINICA	5.9	6.0	5.8	- 0.2
GRENADA	2.2	2.0	2.4	0.4
ST KITTS-NEVIS	2.4	2.4	2.3	- 0.1
ST VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES	4.4	4.2	4.5	0.3
ST LUCIA	18.3	19.2	17.6	- 1.6
LATIN AMERICA-CARIBBEAN REGION	27.3	24.2	30.4	6.2

(1) Illiteracy is defined here as less than one year at school.

(2) 1960

Source: Unesco

Note: It is pointed out that illiteracy is generally defined as less than four years at school, not one as here. Its precise definition is as follows.

"(a) A person is literate who can with understanding both read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life.

(b) A person is illiterate who cannot with understanding both read and write a short simple statement on his everyday life.

(c) A person is functionally literate who can engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and the community's development.

(d) A person is functionally illiterate who cannot engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writimg and calculation for his own and the community's development."

(definition adopted by Unesco on 27 Novemeber 1978)

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GROSS ENROLMENT RATIOS IN FIRST AND SECOND LEVEL OF EDUCATION IN 1980

Country	Age-groups	First level (%)	Second level (%)	First and second levels (%)
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS	————	NA	NA	NA
DOMINICA	(5-11,12-16)	101	66	87
GRENADA	(5-11,12-16)	109	83	98
ST KITTS-NEVIS	(5-11,12-17)	97	64	81
ST VINCENT AND THE GRENADINES	(5-11,12-18)	108	40	75
ST LUCIA	(5-11,12-16)	127	28	87
LATIN AMERICA AND CARIBBEAN(1)	————	108	52	——

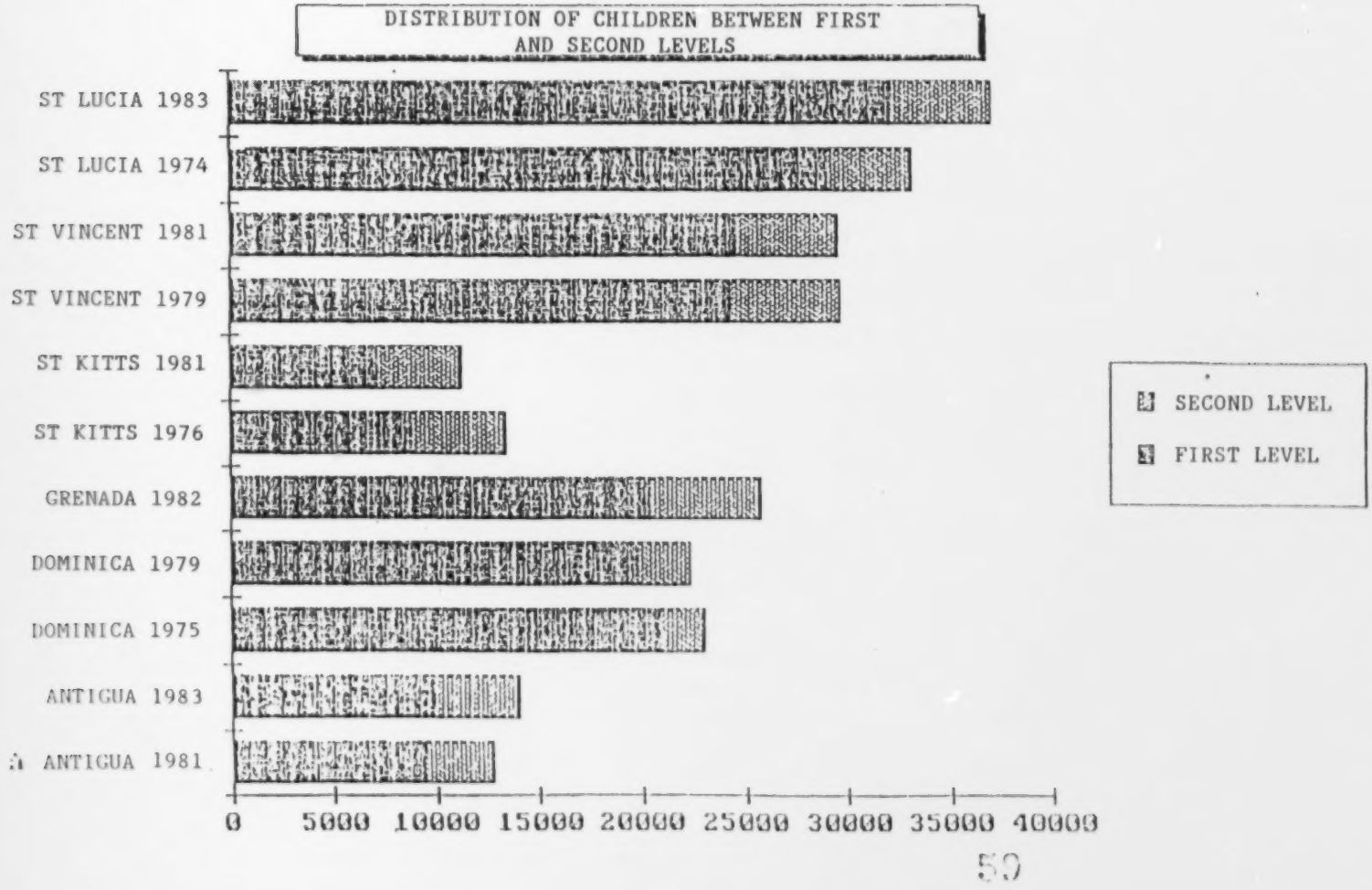
(1): 1985

Source: Unesco

ENROLMENT TRENDS AND DISTRIBUTION

Country	Year	First level		Second level	
		Total	% girls	Total	% girls
ANTIGUA AND	1981	9,492	50.8	3,388	59.1
BARBADOS	1983	9,933	47.1	4,197	55.2
DOMINICA	1975	20,755	50.1	2,445	58.4
	1979	19,707	47.5	2,725	59.9
GRENADA	1982	20,284	47.7	5,590	62.4
ST KITTS-NEVIS	1976	8,724	47.6	4,770	50.5
	1981	7,074	48.1	4,334	50.5
ST VINCENT AND	1979	24,346	49.1	5,421	60.2
THE GRENADINES	1981	24,569	48.5	5,123	61.8
ST LUCIA	1974	29,090	48.4	4,181	57.9
	1983	32,107	49.1	4,989	57.2

Sources: Unesco and Mission Française de Coopération à Ste Lucie.
St Kitts-Nevis Statistical Digest.
Antigua and Barbuda Statistical Digest.


DISTRIBUTION OF CHILDREN BETWEEN FIRST AND SECOND LEVELS
ST LUCIA 1983
ST LUCIA 1974
ST VINCENT 1981
ST VINCENT 1979
ST KITTS 1981
ST KITTS 1976
GRENADA 1982
DOMINICA 1979
DOMINICA 1975
ANTIGUA 1983
ANTIGUA 1981
0
5000
10000
15000
20000
25000
30000
35000
40000
SECOND LEVEL
FIRST LEVEL

EFFICIENCY OF THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Country	Year	Evolution of a cohort of 1,000 pupils: Number of pupils reaching grades 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total drop-out out of 1,000 pupils	Repetition rate in first level
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS	1974	1,000	897	897	897	867	853	782	218	NA
GRENADA	1975	1,000	841	803	803	787	745	653	347	6.1
	1981	1,000	1,000	998	998	998	998	967	33	5.7
SAINT LUCIA	1982	1,000	1,000	991	975	947	947	947	53	3.2

Source: Unesco, see table 1.

Note: Unesco's calculation of educational efficiency is based on the reconstituted cohort method which consists in reconstituting the school careers of 1,000 pupils entering the system for the first time, and based on observed behaviour probabilities. The method uses the so-called 'flow diagram' demographic technique and does not treat time as a constraint. The level reached is taken into account regardless of the time taken to reach it.

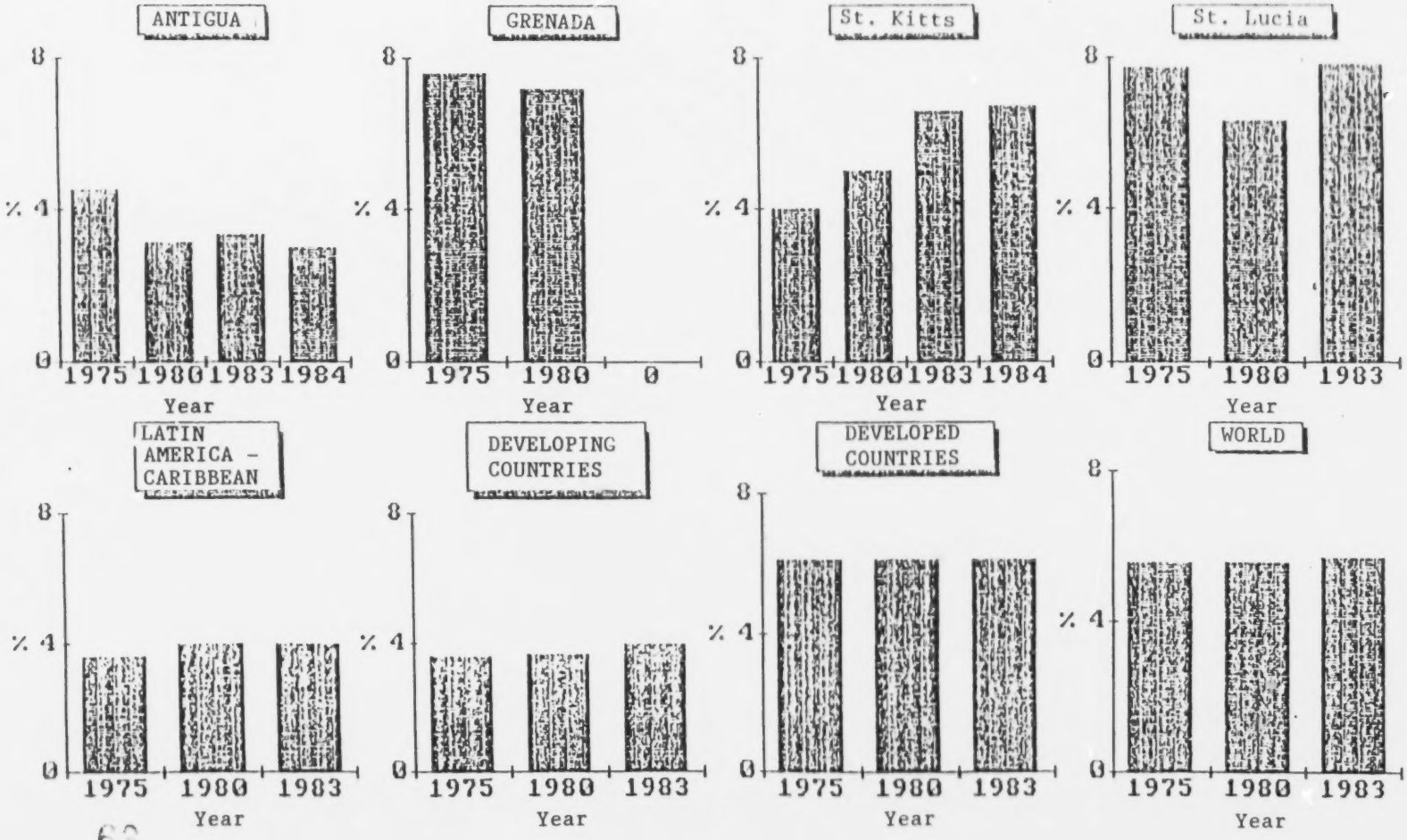
PUBLIC EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE AS A
PERCENTAGE OF GNP AND TOTAL PUBLIC EXPENDITURE

Country	Percentage of GNP				Percentage of public expenditure		
	1975	1980	1983	1984	1975	1980	1983
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS	4.5	3.1	3.3	3.0	14.4	7.6	
GRENADA	7.6	7.2	4.6 (1)	ND	12.5	ND	ND
SAINT KITTS-NEVIS	4.0	5.0	6.6	6.7	14.8	10.2	18.6
SAINT LUCIA	7.7	6.3 (2)	7.8	ND	16.8	ND	ND
LATIN AMERICA CARIBBEAN	3.6	4.0	4.0	ND	ND	ND	ND
DEVELOPING COUNTRIES	3.6	3.7	4.0	ND	ND	ND	ND
DEVELOPED COUNTRIES	6.1	6.1	6.1	ND	ND	ND	ND
WORLD	5.6	5.6	5.7	ND	ND	ND	ND

(1) Not including third level
(2) Not including capital expenditure

Source: Unesco

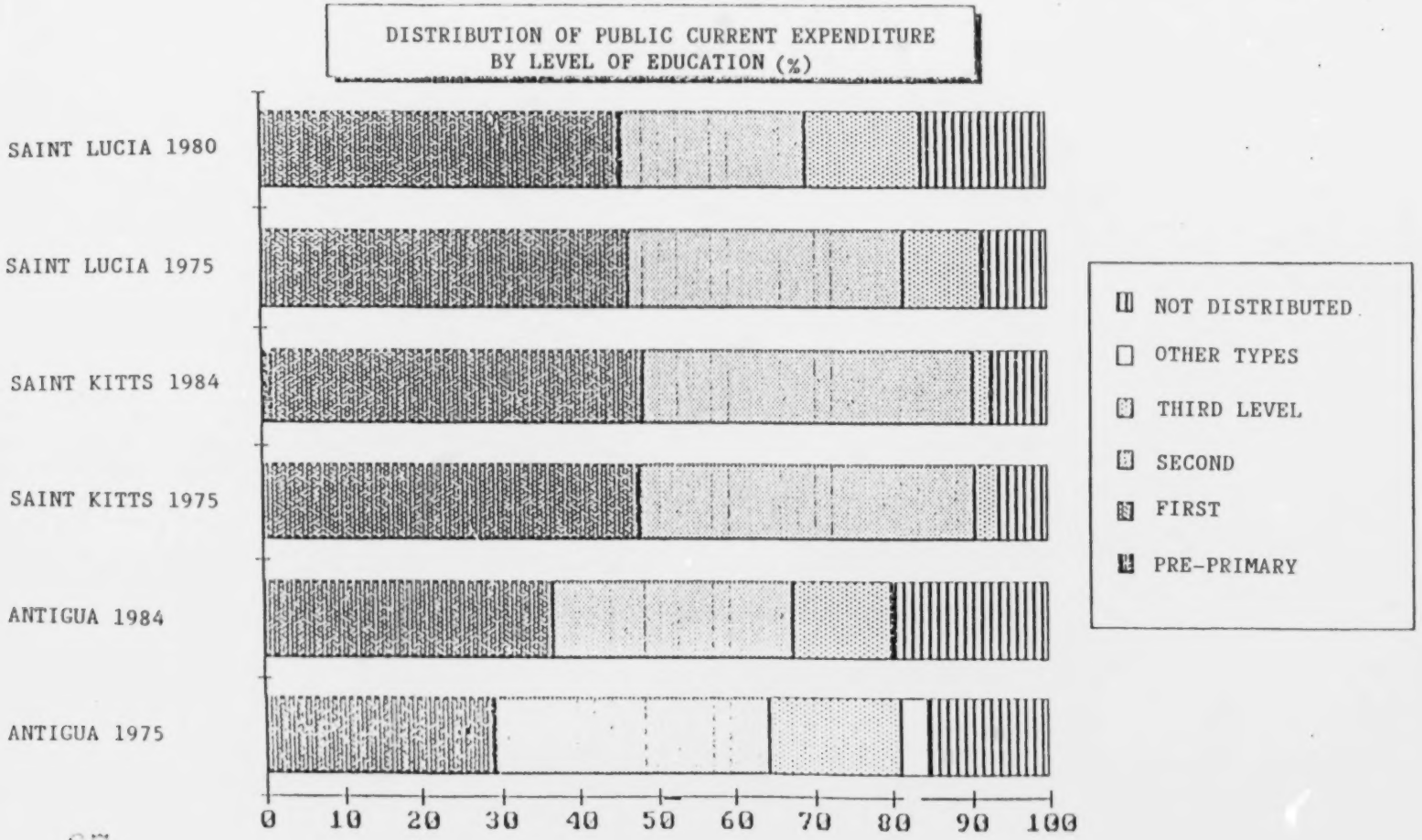
PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AS A PERCENTAGE OF GNP



DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION (PERCENTAGE)

Country	Year	Level of education				Other types	Not distributed
		Pre-primary	First	Second	Third		
ANTIGUA AND BARBADOS	1975	-	29.2	35.2	16.7	3.5	15.4
	1984	-	36.6	30.6	12.7	-	20.1
SAINT KITTS-NEVIS	1975	-	48.0	42.5	3.1	0.1	6.3
	1984	1.2	47.3	41.9	2.1	0.2	7.3
SAINT LUCIA	1975	-	46.6	34.9	10.0	0.1	8.4
	1980	-	45.6	23.7	14.7	0.7	15.3

Source: Unesco


DISTRIBUTION OF PUBLIC CURRENT EXPENDITURE
BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION (%)
SAINT LUCIA 1980
SAINT LUCIA 1975
SAINT KITTS 1984
SAINT KITTS 1975
ANTIGUA 1984
ANTIGUA 1975
0
10
20
30
40
50
60
70
80
90
100
NOT DISTRIBUTED
OTHER TYPES
THIRD LEVEL
SECOND
FIRST
PRE-PRIMARY

THE FRENCH WEST INDIES

CHARACTERISTICS OF FRENCH WEST INDIES

	MARTINIQUE	GUADELOUPE
Area (Km^2)	1,102	1,779
Population (1982)	326,617	323,786
Gross domestic product (1983, million francs)	9,963	8,486
Per capita GDP (1984, US dollars)	6,482	6,339
Unemployment (1986)	31 %	27 %

Sources: INSEE, World Bank

EDUCATION OFFICE
STATISTICS
DEPARTMENT

GUADELOUPE Student numbers and forecasts

State education

Levels	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85	85/86	86/87	87/88	For 88/89	For 89/90
2 years old	126	337	330	406	415	374	319	299	280	284
3 years old	2580	2959	3542	4112	4244	4722	4542	4300	4351	4420
4 years old	5374	5256	4835	5372	5746	6025	6067	5375	5448	5537
5 years old	6721	5947	5626	5096	5510	5547	6033	5500	5618	5711
6 years old	46	49	37	23	57	52	123	54	56	57
NURSERY SCHOOL	15041	14580	14480	15009	15972	17020	17119	15528	15753	16009
Class 1	10451	10016	8995	8170	7374	7372	7842	7945	8213	8366
Class 2	9932	9372	9094	8203	7673	7079	6834	7119	7151	7391
Class 3	9877	9757	9328	9068	8319	7705	7019	6818	7119	7167
Class 4	10179	10186	10043	9608	9306	8652	8005	7243	7023	6937
Class 5	9715	9843	9566	9265	9017	8842	7941	7452	6726	6663
Special education	736	814	792	781	759	714	767	685	685	685
PRIMARY :	50910	49830	47820	45075	42948	40195	38393	37262	36927	37429
TOTAL 1st Level	65951	64388	62300	60084	58920	57205	55512	52790	52680	53438
1st year	8410	8171	8567	9083	8924	8787	8745	8458	7822	7468
2nd year	7396	7713	7751	7807	8240	8285	8198	8456	7503	6794
3rd year	5959	5263	5386	5229	5140	5521	5414	5278	5251	4932
3rd year (tech.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	488	866	858
4th year	5676	5590	5335	5358	5260	5146	5523	5675	5687	5667
4th year (tech.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	400	795
Prevocational	3726	3328	2980	2973	3034	3118	3183	2708	2444	2252
Pre-apprenticeship	1165	1102	998	973	911	858	944	972	891	823
LOWER SECONDARY	32532	31167	31017	31423	31509	31615	32004	31535	30664	27609
Remedial Classes	1007	1125	1235	1322	1427	1472	1503	1339	1350	1370
Vocational studies cert.	236	206	203	197	203	197	216	177	153	168
1st trade cert.3	1271	1265	1219	1195	1145	1176	1110	925	1010	954
2nd trade cert.3	960	955	961	1001	977	1034	1026	956	710	925
3rd trade cert.+extra subjects	754	749	761	852	921	697	934	957	921	891
1st voc.studies dip.+trade cert.2	2347	2237	2275	2268	2203	2255	2203	2137	2231	2377
2nd voc.studies dip.+trade cert.2 +extra subjects	1810	1806	1903	2044	2073	2162	2124	2170	2067	2139
Vocational bac.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	50	100	120
Vocational bac.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	40	90
Supplementary training	0	0	0	0	0	27	30	0	0	0
VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY	7328	7320	7462	7537	7532	7720	7625	7142	7262	7454
5th form	2182	2210	2156	2023	1906	2112	2067	2318	2299	2398
lower sixth	1665	1917	2109	1900	1657	1926	2052	2140	2244	2201
upper sixth	1538	1627	1854	2370	2190	2089	2215	2089	2345	2543
UPPER SECONDARY (Gen.+tech.)	5385	5754	6129	6193	5953	6117	6334	6547	6888	7142
TOTAL 2nd level	46132	45366	45843	46525	46921	46924	47496	46654	46184	45575
Higher technician diploma	28	23	30	80	127	159	215	225	250	275
TOTAL DEPARTMENT	112111	109777	108173	106689	106968	104258	103229	99569	99094	99288

MARTINIQUE Student numbers and forecasts

State education

Levels	80/81	81/82	82/83	83/84	84/85	85/86	86/87	87/88	For 88/89	For 89/90
2 years old	1005	1177	1087	955	886	961	971	1099	1173	1173
3 years old	4689	4513	5080	5267	5361	5327	5517	5759	5815	5815
4 years old	5515	5395	5058	5446	5563	5621	5559	5812	5853	5863
5 years old	5746	5090	4953	4910	5193	5330	5489	5377	5387	5397
6 years old	102	92	87	77	53	100	94	87	89	89
NURSERY SCHOOL	17035	16267	16265	16655	17056	17339	17630	18134	18317	18337
Class 1	8584	7974	7066	6555	6346	6460	6531	6717	6774	6735
Class 2	8482	8006	7480	6747	6133	5954	6037	6114	6314	6367
Class 3	8882	8190	7742	7314	6578	6114	5832	5915	5992	6180
Class 4	9613	9302	8576	8055	7535	6907	6322	6044	6152	6425
Class 5	9749	9538	9021	8331	7857	7407	6821	6265	5784	5695
Special education	1000	1092	971	860	668	868	819	830	850	860
PRIMARY	46310	44102	40856	37862	35319	33556	32362	31855	32016	32312
TOTAL 1st Level	63345	60369	57121	54517	52375	50895	49992	49989	50333	51649
1st year	8500	8059	8233	7994	7579	7285	7193	6334	6235	6464
2nd year	7736	7757	7796	8203	7990	7667	7400	7083	6744	6456
3rd year	5627	5258	5472	5367	5233	5386	5126	5085	5102	5031
3rd year (tech.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	479	539	543
4th year	4946	4877	5183	5407	5490	5321	5473	5324	5277	5277
4th year (tech.)	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	26	356	497
Prevocational	5077	4610	4093	3500	3221	3273	3103	2652	2732	2765
Pre-apprenticeship	228	255	340	345	300	343	552	619	530	529
LOWER SECONDARY	32114	30816	31117	30816	29813	29369	28947	28102	27707	27759
Remedial Classes	1320	1535	1611	1711	1721	1793	1828	1868	1880	1900
Vocational studies cert.	152	173	123	100	90	96	61	37	55	60
1st trade cert.3	1416	1249	1139	1160	1194	1158	1122	692	757	768
2nd trade cert.3	1024	1000	1058	1015	1041	1115	1066	1035	802	854
3rd trade cert.+extra subjects	786	898	1046	1069	1007	976	1160	1050	1087	1115
1st voc.studies dip.+trade cert.2	2044	1935	1960	1991	1998	1941	1952	2013	2207	2229
2nd voc.studies dip.+trade cert.2 +extra subjects	1426	1574	1692	1747	1831	1889	1865	1960	2017	2224
Vocational bac.1	0	0	0	0	[illegible]	0	0	12	24	30
Vocational bac.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	10
Supplementary training	0	0	0	0	0	101	126	73	87	100
VOCATIONAL UPPER SECONDARY	6848	6819	7070	7082	7161	7276	7292	6772	7037	7261
5th form	1966	1756	1935	1962	1912	1995	2159	2278	2265	2341
lower sixth	1846	1773	1765	1778	1810	1954	1924	2063	2117	2153
upper sixth	1613	1815	1815	1823	1696	1562	1727	1714	1991	2090
UPPER SECONDARY (Gen.+tech.)	5425	5344	5516	5563	5418	5511	5810	6055	6373	6584
TOTAL 2nd level	45707	44514	45314	45172	44113	43949	43777	42787	42997	43514
Higher technician diploma	195	230	289	339	313	331	330	428	450	470
TOTAL DEPARTMENT	109247	105113	102724	100028	96801	95175	94149	93202	93780	95519

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SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: MARTINIQUE

	YEAR 1988-1989															
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	3rd year tech.	4th year	4th year tech.	Pre-vocational	Pre-apprenticeship	Vocational Studies Cert.	4 Prep.	3 Prep.	3 Trade Cert.3	Trade Cert.1	Voc.Stud. Dip.1+ 1 Trade Cert.2	Voc.Stud. Dip.2+ 2 Trade Cert.2	Extra Subjects
	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
YEAR 1987-1988																
Class 5 primary	5111						311									
1st year secondary	1309	5210					338	30								
2nd year secondary		1517	4161	278			603	303	4	144						
3rd year secondary			728	25	4057		51	89	1	31						
3rd year (Tech.)				14	36	406				5	1					
4th year					1156			7		2	1			1613		
4th year (Tech.)						5								9		
Pre-vocational				154			896	223	41	249						
Pre-apprenticeship				33				73	8	62						
Vocational studies cert.									1	6						
4 Prep.				6			3			23	593					
3 Prep.											16	890		24		
3 Trade Cert. 3												81		102		15
Trade Cert. 1																
1 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2														185	1628	
2 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2															272	30
Extra subjects																
Vocational Bac.1																
Vocational Bac.2																
5th form														114		
Lower sixth																

73

74

YEAR 1989-1989

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	3rd year tech.	4th year	4th year tech.	Pre-vocational	Pre-apprenticeship	Vocational Studies Cert.	4 Prep.	3 Prep.	3 Trade Cert.3	Trade Cert.1	Voc.Stud. Dip.1+1 Trade Cert.2	Voc.Stud. Dip.2+2 Trade Cert.2	Extra Subjects
	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
Upper sixth														1		
Special education	12						1		1	5				11		
Other	3			8		1	15			2	8	2		16	1	
TOTAL 1988-1989	6435	6727	4889	518	5249	412	2218	725	56	529	619	973		2075	1901	45

SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: MARTINIQUE

	YEAR 1989-1989						
	Voc. bac 1	Voc. bac 2	5th form	Lower sixth	Upper sixth	Leavers	TOTAL 87-88
YEAR 1987-1988							
Class 5 (primary)							6634
1st year (secondary)						285	7172
2nd year (secondary)						455	7465
3rd year (secondary)						467	5449
3rd year (Tech.)						17	479
4th year (secondary)			1873			1059	5711
4th year (Tech.)						12	26
Pre-vocational						1105	2668
Pre-apprenticeship						443	619
Vocational Studies Cert.						30	37
4 Prep.						97	722
3 Prep.						136	1066
3 Trade Cert. 3			19			833	1050
Trade Cert. 1							
1 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2						451	2264
2 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2	128		3	417		1296	2146
Extra subjects	1					33	34
Vocational Bac.1		11				1	12
Vocational Bac.2						9	9
5th form			712	1356		353	2535
Lower sixth	8			404	1548	471	2431
Upper sixth					316	1797	2114
Special education							
Other		1	1		5		
TOTAL 88-89	137	12	2608	2177	1869		

SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: MARTINIQUE

YEAR 1988-1989

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	3rd year tech.	4th year	4th year tech.	Pre-vocational	Pre-apprenticeship	Vocational Studies Cert.	4 Prep.	3 Prep.	3 Trade Cert.3	Trade Cert.1	Voc.Stud. Dip.1+1 Trade Cert.2	Voc.Stud. Dip.2+2 Trade Cert.2	Extra Subjects
YEAR 1987-1988	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
Class 5 primary	77.04						4.69									
1st year secondary	18.25	72.64					4.71	0.42								
2nd year secondary		20.32	55.74	3.72			8.08	4.06	0.05	1.93						
3rd year secondary			13.36	0.46	74.45		0.94	1.63	0.02	0.57						
3rd year (Tech.)				2.92	7.52	84.76				1.04	0.21					
4th year					20.24			0.12		0.04	0.02			28.24		
4th year (Tech.)						19.23								34.62		
Pre-vocational				5.77			33.58	8.36	1.54	9.33						
Pre-apprenticeship				5.33				11.79	1.29	10.02						
Vocational studies cert.									2.70	16.22						
4 Prep.				0.83			0.42			3.19	82.13					
3 Prep.											1.50	83.49		2.25		
Trade Cert. 3												7.71		9.71		1.43
Trade Cert. 1																
Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2														8.17	71.91	
Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2															12.67	1.40
Extra subjects																
Vocational Bac.1																
Vocational Bac.2																
5th form														4.50		
Lower sixth																
Upper sixth														0.05		

SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: MARTINIQUE

YEAR 1988-1989

	Voc. bac 1	Voc. bac 2	5th form	Lower sixth	Upper sixth	Leavers	TOTAL 87-88
YEAR 1987-1988							
Class 5 primary							100.00
1st year secondary						3.97	100.00
2nd year secondary						6.10	100.00
3rd year secondary						8.57	100.00
3rd year (Tech.)						3.55	100.00
4th year secondary			32.80			18.54	100.00
4th year (Tech.)						46.15	100.00
Pre-vocational						41.42	100.00
Pre-apprenticeship						71.57	100.00
Vocational Studies Cert.						81.08	100.00
4 Prep.						13.43	100.00
3 Prep.						12.76	100.00
3 Trade Cert. 3			1.81			79.33	100.00
Trade Cert. 1							
1 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2						19.92	100.00
2 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2	5.96		0.14	19.43		60.39	100.00
Extra subjects	2.94					97.06	100.00
Vocational Bac.1		91.67				8.33	100.00
Vocational Bac.2							
5th form			28.09	53.49		13.93	100.00
Lower sixth	0.33			16.62	63.68	19.37	100.00
Upper sixth					14.95	85.00	100.00

SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: GUADELOUPE

	YEAR 1988-1989															
	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	3rd year tech.	4th year	4th year tech.	Pre-vocational	Pre-apprenticeship	Vocational Studies Cert.	4 Prep.	3 Prep.	3 Trade Cert.3	Trade Cert.1	Voc.Stud. Dip.1+ 1 Trade Cert.2	Voc.Stud. Dip.2+ 2 Trade Cert.2	Extra Subjects
	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
YEAR 1987-1988																
Class 5 (primary)	6771						136									
1st year (secondary)	1066	6396					526	44		1						
2nd year (secondary)		1236	4960	352			797	254	22	228						
3rd year (secondary)			530	6	4573		18	23	3	6						
3rd year (tech.)			1	22	15	410				4						
4th year					864		1			2				1940		
4th year (tech.)						2										
Pre-vocational				176			712	371	131	279						
Pre-apprenticeship				22				77	2	14						
Vocational Studies Cert.									8	36	2					
4 Prep.				4			5		4	47	593					
3 Prep.						1					32	826		8		
Trade Cert. 3												61		26	21	25
Trade Cert. 1																
Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2														113	1833	
Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2															155	
Extra subjects																
Vocational Bac.1																
Vocational Bac.2																
5th form														64		
Lower sixth																

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YEAR 1988-1989

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	3rd year tech.	4th year	4th year tech.	Pre-vocational	Pre-apprenticeship	Vocational Studies Cert.	4 Prep.	3 Prep.	3 Trade Cert.3	Trade Cert.1	Voc.Stud. Dip.1+ 1 Trade Cert.2	Voc.Stud. Dip.2+ 2 Trade Cert.2	Extra Subjects
	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
Upper sixth																
Special education	2		1	9			25	1	1	13						
Other	7		3		2		12		5	1		7				
TOTAL 1988-1989	7846	7632	5495	591	5454	413	2232	770	176	631	627	894		2151	2009	25

SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: GUADELOUPE

YEAR 1988-1989

	Voc. bac 1	Voc. bac 2	5th form	Lower sixth	Upper sixth	Leavers	TOTAL 87-88
YEAR 1987-1988							
Class 5 (primary)							8053
1st year (secondary)						971	9004
2nd year (secondary)						779	8628
3rd year (secondary)						580	5739
3rd year (tech.)						108	560
4th year (secondary)			2216			1153	6176
4th year (tech.)			1			-3	
Pre-vocational						1221	2890
Pre-apprenticeship						921	1036
Vocational Studies Cert.						131	177
4 Prep.						415	1068
3 Prep.						457	1324
3 Trade Cert. 3			23			1029	1185
Trade Cert. 1							
1 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2						547	2493
2 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2	91		3	351		1830	2430
Extra subjects						24	24
Vocational Bac.1		47				42	89
Vocational Bac.2		1				28	29
5th form			615	1670		221	2570
Lower sixth				321	1750	319	2390
Upper sixth					447	1981	2428
Special education							
Other	1		1	1	2		
TOTAL 88-89	92	48	2859	2343	2199		

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SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: GUADELOUPE

YEAR 1988-1989

	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	3rd year tech.	4th year	4th year tech.	Pre-vocational	Pre-apprenticeship	Vocational Studies Cert.	4 Prep.	3 Prep.	3 Trade Cert.3	Trade Cert.1	Voc.Stud. Dip.1+ 1 Trade Cert.2	Voc.Stud. Dip.2+ 2 Trade Cert.2	Extra Subjects
	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.	Nos.
YEAR 1987-1988																
Class 5 primary	84.08						1.69									
1st year secondary	11.84	71.04					5.84	0.49		0.01						
2nd year secondary		14.33	57.49	4.08			9.24	2.94	0.25	2.64						
3rd year secondary			9.24	0.10	79.68		0.31	0.40	0.05	0.10						
3rd year (tech.)			0.18	3.93	2.68	73.21				0.71						
4th year					13.99		0.02			0.03				31.41		
4th year (tech.)																
Pre-vocational				6.09			24.64	12.84	4.53	9.65						
Pre-apprenticeship				2.12				7.43	0.19	1.35						
Vocational Studies Cert.									4.52	20.34	1.13					
4 Prep.				0.37			0.47		0.37	4.40	55.52					
3 Prep.						0.08					2.42	62.39		0.60		
Trade Cert. 3												5.15		2.19	1.77	2.11
Trade Cert. 1																
Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2														4.53	73.53	
Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2															6.38	
Extra subjects																
Vocational Bac.1																
Vocational Bac.2																
5th form														2.49		
Lower sixth																
Upper sixth																

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SURVEY NO. 16
SUMMARY TABLE

PUPIL MOVEMENTS IN STATE AND PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS
NUMBERS EVALUATED BETWEEN 1987-1988 AND 1988-1989

MONDAY 9 JANUARY 1989 (12.37)

EDUCATION AUTHORITY: ANTILLES GUYANA
AND DEPARTMENT: GUADELOUPE

YEAR 1988-1989

	Voc. bac 1	Voc. bac 2	5th form	Lower sixth	Upper sixth	Leavers	TOTAL 87-88
YEAR 1987-1988							
Class 5 (primary)							100.00
1st year (secondary)						10.78	100.00
2nd year (secondary)						9.03	100.00
3rd year (secondary)						10.11	100.00
3rd year (tech.)						19.29	100.00
4th year (secondary)			35.88			18.67	100.00
4th year (tech.)							
Pre-vocational						42.25	100.00
Pre-apprenticeship						88.90	100.00
Vocational Studies Cert.						74.01	100.00
4 Prep.						38.86	100.00
3 Prep.						34.52	100.00
3 Trade Cert. 3			1.94			86.84	100.00
Trade Cert. 1							
1 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 1 Trade Cert.2						21.94	100.00
2 Voc. Studies Dip.+ 2 Trade Cert.2	3.74		0.12	14.44		75.31	100.00
Extra subjects						100.00	100.00
Vocational Bac.1		52.81				47.19	100.00
Vocational Bac.2		3.45				96.55	100.00
5th form			23.93	64.98		8.60	100.00
Lower sixth				13.43	73.22	13.35	100.00
Upper sixth					18.41	81.59	100.00

INSEE

Service Interrégional
Antilles-Guyane

POPULATION PROJECTIONS FOR THE FRENCH WEST INDIES TO THE YEAR 2000

June 1987

Guadeloupe

1st scenario

Downward trend in migratory balance

POPULATION OF GUADELOUPE
YEAR 1985

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	15677	15288	30965
5 to 9	15541	15168	30709
10 to 14	20504	19898	40402
15 to 19	20584	20692	41276
20 to 24	17424	16096	33520
25 to 29	11544	11580	23124
30 to 34	10122	11429	21551
35 to 39	9394	10455	19849
40 to 44	7579	8442	16021
45 to 49	6811	7542	14353
50 to 54	6210	7009	13219
55 to 59	5601	6382	11983
60 to 64	5123	5793	10916
65 to 69	3789	4396	8185
70 to 74	3176	3841	7017
75 to 79	1910	2690	4600
80 to 84	998	1628	2626
85 to 89	378	846	1224
90 to 94	145	332	477
95 and +	32	146	178
TOTAL	162542	169653	332195

POPULATION OF GUADELOUPE
YEAR 1990

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	16877	16271	33148
5 to 9	15338	14975	30313
10 to 14	15214	14864	30078
15 to 19	19590	19048	38638
20 to 24	18092	18269	36361
25 to 29	15265	14177	29442
30 to 34	11371	11500	22871
35 to 39	10155	11577	21732
40 to 44	9254	10413	19667
45 to 49	7276	8245	15521
50 to 54	6427	7290	13717
55 to 59	5722	6711	12433
60 to 64	5112	6070	11182
65 to 69	4505	5399	9904
70 to 74	3127	3869	6996
75 to 79	2436	3180	5616
80 to 84	1271	1977	3248
85 to 89	554	964	1518
90 to 94	158	373	531
95 and +	39	174	213
TOTAL	167783	175346	343129

POPULATION OF GUADELOUPE
YEAR 1995

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	17175	16546	33721
5 to 9	16547	15963	32510
10 to 14	15047	14712	29759
15 to 19	14565	14264	28829
20 to 24	17391	16976	34367
25 to 29	16054	16306	32360
30 to 34	15049	14066	29115
35 to 39	11406	11638	23044
40 to 44	10019	11531	21550
45 to 49	8916	10191	19107
50 to 54	6904	7993	14897
55 to 59	5963	7006	12969
60 to 64	5265	6412	11677
65 to 69	4546	5689	10235
70 to 74	3786	4811	8597
75 to 79	2464	3260	5724
80 to 84	1671	2393	4064
85 to 89	705	1165	1870
90 to 94	231	434	665
95 and +	46	203	249
TOTAL	173750	181559	355309

POPULATION OF GUADELOUPE
YEAR 2000

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	16194	15600	31794
5 to 9	16852	16241	33093
10 to 14	16240	15687	31927
15 to 19	14445	14151	28596
20 to 24	12920	12709	25629
25 to 29	15466	15189	30655
30 to 34	15857	16214	32071
35 to 39	15113	14235	29348
40 to 44	11274	11601	22875
45 to 49	9681	11293	20974
50 to 54	8487	9899	18386
55 to 59	6449	7703	14152
60 to 64	5529	6720	12249
65 to 69	4742	6049	10791
70 to 74	3884	5120	9004
75 to 79	3048	4123	7171
80 to 84	1738	2493	4231
85 to 89	931	1419	2350
90 to 94	294	521	815
95 and +	64	235	299
TOTAL	179208	187202	366410

Martinique

1st scenario

Downward trend in migratory balance

POPULATION OF MARTINIQUE
YEAR 1985

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	13286	12654	25940
5 to 9	13773	13336	27109
10 to 14	18955	18679	37634
15 to 19	21056	21187	42243
20 to 24	18379	16940	35319
25 to 29	11115	11140	22255
30 to 34	9608	11344	20952
35 to 39	8893	10446	19339
40 to 44	7325	8474	15799
45 to 49	7421	8491	15912
50 to 54	6744	7661	14405
55 to 59	6284	7227	13511
60 to 64	5478	6332	11810
65 to 69	4162	4879	9041
70 to 74	3449	4448	7897
75 to 79	2192	3125	5317
80 to 84	1126	1973	3099
85 to 89	445	1087	1532
90 to 94	124	414	538
95 and +	48	121	169
TOTAL	159863	169958	329821

POPULATION OF MARTINIQUE
YEAR 1990

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	14511	13839	28350
5 to 9	13123	12518	25641
10 to 14	13779	13348	27127
15 to 19	18610	18361	36971
20 to 24	18827	18980	37807
25 to 29	15284	14131	29415
30 to 34	10847	10970	21817
35 to 39	9905	11746	21651
40 to 44	9065	10701	19766
45 to 49	7274	8485	15759
50 to 54	7221	8376	15597
55 to 59	6398	7448	13846
60 to 64	5805	6948	12753
65 to 69	4924	5972	10896
70 to 74	3556	4424	7980
75 to 79	2758	3814	6572
80 to 84	1491	2402	3893
85 to 89	585	1243	1828
90 to 94	162	504	666
95 and +	45	101	146
TOTAL	164170	174311	338481

POPULATION OF MARTINIQUE
YEAR 1995

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	15313	14604	29917
5 to 9	14356	13708	28064
10 to 14	13128	12523	25651
15 to 19	13542	13123	26665
20 to 24	16747	16557	33304
25 to 29	16018	16216	32234
30 to 34	14994	13919	28913
35 to 39	11146	11324	22470
40 to 44	10072	12002	22074
45 to 49	9002	10712	19714
50 to 54	7098	8382	15480
55 to 59	6882	8161	15043
60 to 64	5956	7187	13143
65 to 69	5272	6589	11861
70 to 74	4276	5466	9742
75 to 79	2905	3852	6757
80 to 84	1932	2983	4915
85 to 89	776	1515	2291
90 to 94	212	575	787
95 and +	55	116	171
TOTAL	169682	179514	349196

POPULATION OF MARTINIQUE
YEAR 2000

AGE	MEN	WOMEN	TOTAL
0 to 4	13913	13268	27181
5 to 9	15139	14459	29598
10 to 14	14366	13722	28088
15 to 19	12864	12273	25137
20 to 24	11896	11539	23435
25 to 29	13868	13768	27636
30 to 34	15804	16085	31889
35 to 39	15532	14470	30002
40 to 44	11419	11647	23066
45 to 49	10052	12057	22109
50 to 54	8831	10618	19449
55 to 59	6799	8192	14991
60 to 64	6457	7913	14370
65 to 69	5470	6870	12340
70 to 74	4647	6093	10740
75 to 79	3564	4823	8387
80 to 84	2078	3065	5143
85 to 89	1008	1884	2892
90 to 94	280	699	979
95 and +	66	129	195
TOTAL	174053	183574	357627